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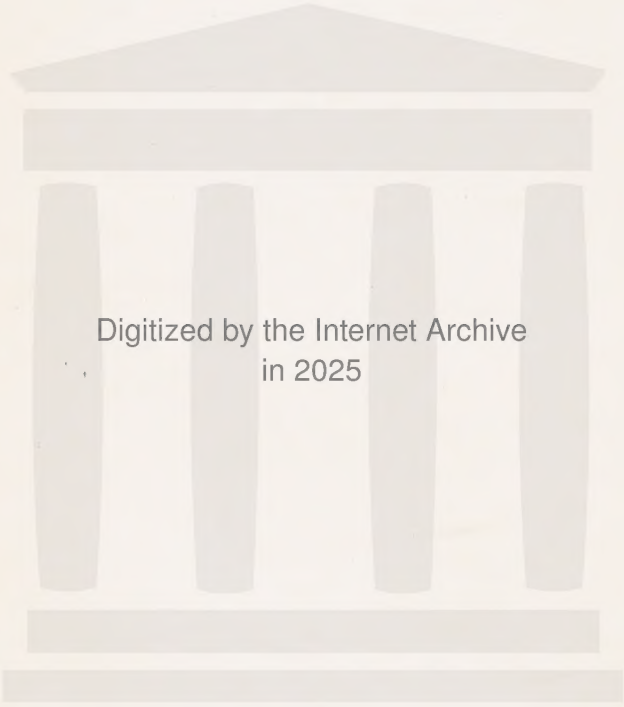
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THE

SCHOOLS FOR THE PEOPLE

M/E/S/E

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AND PARLIAMENT STREET

A PRACTICAL CHEMISTRY CLASS TO ARTIZANS

(*See* page 136)

THE

SCHOOLS FOR THE PEOPLE

CONTAINING THE

HISTORY, DEVELOPMENT, AND PRESENT WORKING OF EACH DESCRIPTION OF ENGLISH SCHOOL FOR THE INDUSTRIAL AND POORER CLASSES

BY

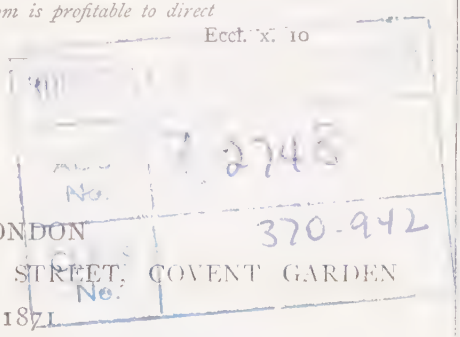
GEORGE C. T. BARTLEY

EXAMINER SCIENCE AND ART DEPARTMENT

AUTHOR OF 'THE ONE SQUARE MILE IN THE EAST OF LONDON' ETC.

If the iron be blunt, and he do not whet the edge, then must he put to more strength: but wisdom is profitable to direct

Eccl. x. 10



LONDON

BELL & DALDY, YORK STREET, COVENT GARDEN

1871

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VICE-PRESIDENT

OF THE

COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

1870

PREFACE.

THE publication of this volume on the subject of Education at a time when the topic has been discussed by so many great authorities, requires perhaps an explanation as to how it originated, and the circumstances which led to its preparation. Having been engaged under the Science and Art Department for eleven years, the subject of Schools, their history and development, has constantly come under my notice in the course of my official duties. In not a few instances has it happened that I have experienced difficulty in arriving at facts bearing on the general relation of Schools of different descriptions with the Educational System of the country. As a matter of private study, and quite apart from my official work, I became much interested in the subject of the condition of pauper children and the modes which exist for their improvement. I was thus led to consider the working of Workhouse, District, Industrial, Ragged, Reformatory, and such like Schools. One branch led me on to another, and the complete history of Education in England during the last three hundred years, seemed so interesting and instructive that I commenced a series of articles on the rise and progress of the chief descriptions of Schools for the industrial and poorer classes. Four or five of these were published in the Journal of the Society of Arts, and the interest which they created encouraged

me to proceed. The subject, however, soon assumed such dimensions as far to exceed the capacity of that Journal. I was on this account recommended to bring out the series in a complete form, and a compliance with this advice has resulted in the publication of the present volume.

It may, perhaps, strike some who have not studied the subject of Education very deeply, that the number and variety of Schools which appear in the table of contents must be sufficient to meet every possible case, and that after all England is not so far behind in the provision she has made for the training of her children. A closer investigation, however, unfortunately will soon dispel any such delusion. Schools are certainly in existence for almost every class of child, but the accommodation which they provide is far below the requirements, as may be seen by the table at page 26. This, however, is not the worst feature in the case, for so great is the apathy and indifference of parents, caused, it is true, by long neglect, that the provision already made in existing Schools is not taken advantage of to nearly its full extent, in spite of the hundreds of thousands who are growing up in absolute ignorance.

As an example of the complete impotency of the recent regulations to reach children neglected by their parents, I may mention the following case, which came under my special knowledge. In pursuing enquiries at the East end of London in February 1870, I took particular interest in a sharp little fellow with whom I became acquainted. He was about twelve years of age, and his residence, if it could be called such, was within a mile of the Bank of England and the Mansion of the Lord Mayor. It was also within fifty yards of a Church of England and a Vicarage. Taking his home as a

centre and striking a half-mile radius, the following Institutions were to be found: at least twenty Churches of the National Establishment, with vicars, curates, district visitors, Sunday Schools, &c.; a still larger number of Dissenting Chapels, with numerous ministers and other helpers; nineteen Elementary Schools aided by Government grants, twenty-seven other Elementary Schools, and an innumerable number of Dame and such like places of instruction. In spite of all this machinery this wretched boy did not know his own name, except that he was generally called 'Diddlego;' could, of course, not read; nor had he the slightest knowledge of the very elements of religion. Were this an exceptional instance it would stand for nothing, but within that very half-mile radius at least twenty thousand children are at this moment quite in the same position, or one but very slightly removed from it. Without doubt, the Education Bill of 1870 has a vast field for labour, unfortunately not on a virgin soil, but on one rank with the growth of many years of ignorance and neglect.

The complete change in the Educational aspect of the country which this new measure must produce, will before very long, it is to be hoped, make great alterations in the existing Schools for the People I have attempted to describe. This consideration, however, has not induced me to give up the work, a large part of which was written before the Act of 1870 was framed. That measure has indeed rather stimulated me to hurry on its completion, as I ventured to hope that in issuing a succinct account of each description of School I should save others many a weary search for information connected with educational matters. The tracing of the history of each educational system becomes more and more difficult as the action of the State tends to assimilate all Schools to one common

mould, and the characteristics which once were so marked in individual schemes gradually get softened and reduced to one uniform standard.

It is feared that the severe critic will fail to find novelty or originality in these pages. To this omission I must indeed plead guilty. My object throughout has been to secure accuracy, and as rarely as possible to draw deductions of my own, but rather to state facts as they existed at each period and to leave my readers to form their own conclusions. In investigating the history of most Schools I have received cordial assistance from those particularly interested in them, both by the loan of rare and original documents and early publications as well as by their personal co-operation.

Without this I need hardly say my task would have been very much more arduous, and the result of my investigations far less satisfactory. I should be ungrateful to my own Department if I failed to mention the great use which the Educational Library at the South Kensington Museum has been to me.

In concluding a work which for nearly two years has almost entirely absorbed every moment of my spare time apart from my official duties, I would wish thus publicly to thank my esteemed friend the Rev. J. Cornford and my brother Dr. Bartley, to whom I am so much indebted for helping me in the somewhat tedious task of revising and seeing these pages through the press, and for many valuable suggestions which I have received from them throughout the progress of the work.

GEORGE C. T. BARTLEY.

HERNE HILL, SURREY:
January, 1871.

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1. THE SCHOOLS FOR THE PEOPLE.

The Reformation.—It is usually admitted that the first step towards educating the great mass of the population of this country was taken about the period of the Great Reformation. Although the efforts put forth for the diffusion of knowledge at an earlier date were not inconsiderable, little progress in learning was perceptible among the people at large. The endeavours of King Alfred the Great, who must be looked upon as the father of English education, were chiefly directed to the improvement of those of his subjects who were in a superior position, and did not reach the working classes. This is shown, indirectly, by his enactment, that all freeholders who possessed two hides of land or upwards 'should send their sons to school and give them a liberal learning.' At the time this was considered a most extensive measure, and as embracing everyone who could possibly benefit by attendance at school. It is evident, therefore, that in those days the idea of all, even the agricultural labourer, receiving a sound education, could hardly have existed. After the death of Alfred the spread of education among the upper classes seems to have been arrested, and the work he had commenced appears gradually to have decayed, so that, for many years, learning was chiefly confined to the Universities he had founded, and to the Episcopal or Cathedral Schools.

Religious Houses — London in the Thirteenth Century.- At the commencement of the thirteenth century the great increase of religious houses—to which in most cases a school was attached

—led to an important revival in learning. According to Bishop Tanner no fewer than 557 of these religious houses were established between the Conquest and the death of King John. The salutary influence which these Institutions exerted upon the people generally appears to have been considerable, even allowing for the somewhat exaggerated mode of expression prevalent at that period. Roger Bacon states, that 'there never had been so great an appearance of learning, and so general an application to study in so many different faculties,' as in his time, when 'schools were erected in every city, town, burgh, and castle; so many schools being founded, and so many sciences taught, in London and its environs, that it was not very improperly called a third University.'

Degeneration in Fifteenth Century.—This state of things, which, if literally true, might excite the envy of modern London, does not appear to have continued very long. The public schools decayed, and the grossest ignorance prevailed among all classes during the fifteenth century. So much was this the case that in the reign of Henry VI. four clergymen petitioned Parliament to allow them to set up schools in their respective parishes, and to take other and more extensive measures to arrest the progress of the evil. This petition, the original of which is still in existence, set forth so convincingly the great need of some measures being taken that it was granted. The schools thus formed, if they did not effect any other good, are said to have had some beneficial influence on the behaviour and manners of the Londoners, remarkable for the rudeness 'which characterised the features of that period.'

Printing—Grammar Schools.—During the thirty years immediately preceding the Reformation, the art of printing, which had been invented but seventy or eighty years, was rapidly producing an effect on the educational aspect of this country. So much was this the case that, coupled with other influences, it gave a fresh impetus to learning, and led, in this short space of time, to the erection and endowment of a larger number of Grammar Schools than had been brought into existence throughout the previous three hundred years. It is usually allowed that the diffusion of knowledge which resulted through the instrumentality of these schools had no small effect in clearing away the mists of ignorance which darkened this period, and in introducing the light of the Reformation.

Ignorance in the Sixteenth Century.—The following anecdotes serve as examples of the ignorance which then prevailed, even among the higher classes. It is recorded that in 1563 only *two* divines at Oxford were capable of preaching before the University. In 1570 the Records show that 'Horne, Bishop of Winton, enjoined to his Minor Canons tasks almost beneath the abilities of an ordinary schoolboy.' In 1567 Archbishop Parker, in his directions for the foundation of three scholarships at Cambridge, provides that they were to be given to the most considerable schools in Kent and Norfolk, and to 'the *best* and *aptest* scholars, well instructed in the grammar, and (*if it may be*) such as can make a verse.'

Reformation the Commencement of Schools for the People.—The influence which the Reformation produced on education is stated thus by Nicholas Carlisle, in his famous work on Grammar Schools: 'Before the Reformation it has been remarked that learning was much confined to the monasteries, but after their dissolution it came forth from thence, and began to diffuse itself more widely among the great body of the people, and the important object of literature soon became a measure of general policy.' Accepting this view of the history of English education, it may be fairly taken for granted that 'Schools for the People' date from the era in which the religious aspect of our country was so completely reformed.

Educational Epochs.—In tracing the progress of national education from the Reformation to the present time, it will be convenient to notice distinct periods, during each of which important changes were made with a view to its extension for the benefit of the people.

1st.—The Grammar-School Period. This commenced shortly before the Reformation, but what little direct influence it had on the education of the masses practically ceased previous to the eighteenth century.

2nd.—The Parochial Charity School Period. This commenced with the beginning of the eighteenth century, and continued to hold its special features for about a hundred years.

3rd.—The Educational Society Period. This commenced in 1808, and retained its more special and exclusive features until the introduction of State aid in 1833.

4th.—The period from 1833 to 1846, during which public grants were made to encourage education, but were limited to

erecting school buildings, teachers' houses, and aiding Training Colleges.

5th.—The period extending from 1846 to the present time, during which public grants have been made towards the *annual* expenses of schools, in addition to the former assistance for buildings.

1st.—The Grammar School Period.

Rapid Extension—Intention of Founders.—The establishment of Grammar Schools commenced, as before stated, a short time before the Reformation, but their extensive development dates subsequently to that period. Nicholas Carlisle thus writes: 'We now arrive at that mild period of the Reformation when the piety and charity of Protestants in the foundation of Grammar Schools prevailed so much that in the succeeding age there wanted rather a regulation than an increase of them.' The original intention of the founders of the greater number of these schools was undoubtedly that they should be 'Schools for the People,' that is, channels for affording instruction to the poorer classes. Those called Free Grammar Schools were generally open gratuitously to persons residing in their immediate neighbourhood, or within a specified distance. Some do not appear to have made even this limitation, but were free to all comers, as the one at Wimborne, in Dorsetshire, which was open to 'all the King's subjects in England for instruction of their sons.'

Fees.—In some instances, the founders seem to have particularly provided against the possibility of any fee being charged. Thus, for instance, at the Manchester Grammar School, the master and usher were to 'teach grammar freely and indifferently' to every child or scholar attending the school, without receiving 'any money or rewards, as cock-penny, victor-penny, potation-penny,* or any other.' Again, the foundation-deed of the Horsham Grammar School provided, that the sixty scholars were to be of the poor of that parish, or of the one adjoining, and specially enjoined that they were to be educated without any payment whatever. On the other hand, at some even of the so-called *Free* Grammar Schools, a small fee was charged, as at Warrington, where a cock-penny or three potation-pennies were required from each pupil in the year; in many cases, however, the poor were specially excluded from this charge.

* Terms originally applied to money paid to defray the expenses of the national sport of cockfighting; subsequently the fees to the teacher.

Numerous instances might be given, showing that the original intention was, that the poorest class should be able, if they thought proper, to avail themselves of the opportunities afforded by the Grammar Schools.

Not confined to the Poor.—Although the Grammar Schools thus provided specially for the poor, the early records at the same time show that pupils of a superior social position in life were not intended to be wholly excluded. In the foundation-deeds of some schools the 'rich and poor' are mentioned, as at Wye, which was for 'the instruction of youths *gratis*, both rich and poor.' In other places, provision is made for 'those that be of ability to pay,' who were to be admitted as well as others in more humble circumstances.

General Intention of Founders.—The main idea in most of the founders' minds seems to have been to secure that their schools should always be well filled with pupils. When established in large towns, having a population amply sufficient to maintain a due supply of children, there is often a provision in the deeds that certain other persons, from neighbouring towns or parishes, should be admitted, if the accommodation were not taken advantage of to its full extent by the classes for whom it was primarily intended. At first sight this might appear strange, particularly as it has been stated that the artisan class was to be freely admitted to Grammar Schools. It is, however, not to be wondered at, inasmuch as in the days when serfdom was practically unabolished, it was not likely that founders would think it probable that their school would be taken advantage of by a large number of the working classes. They seem, however, in many cases to have had considerable foresight, and to have wished to secure, by their liberality, such a provision that no clever boy should be debarred from rising because of his poverty. This is alluded to in the Report of the Schools' Inquiry Commission, as follows: 'If we sum up briefly the purpose of the Grammar Schools, we may describe it to be, an education higher than the rudiments, conducted under religious influences, put within the reach of all classes, with an especial preference for the poor boy who is apt to learn.'

Not used by the Poor.—For the first century, or perhaps a century and a half after the Reformation, these schools continued to be founded in great numbers. The education of the poorer classes, however, does not appear to have been thereby much

improved, as the schools were attended principally by boys of a higher grade. No doubt this arose chiefly from the poor not really caring to take advantage of the instruction provided. This was so much the case that in time, from their uniform absence, the fact that they were included in the original scheme seemed almost to have been forgotten. The loss to the people was, nevertheless, not very great, for, unfortunately, the majority of these Grammar Schools gradually sank into decay, through egregious mismanagement, and they were for many years of little benefit either to the rich or poor.

Cause of Decay.—The large funds in the possession of the trustees of these Schools, instead of being made use of to increase their efficiency, were applied in such a way as to have the opposite effect. Teachers were paid a fixed salary without reference to the success of their work, and they consequently became careless in their teaching, and indifferent to the importance of keeping the Institutions up to the progressive requirements of modern times. The number of scholars sensibly decreased, and the instruction given so seriously degenerated that, after the end of the seventeenth century, they must be regarded as having practically ceased to be what they were originally, 'Schools for the People.'

2ND.—THE PAROCHIAL CHARITY SCHOOL PERIOD, FROM ABOUT 1700 TO 1800.

Causes which were at work.—The increase of learning brought about in the seventeenth century by the spread of literature and the comparative cheapness of books, was instrumental in leading to what may be considered the next epoch in the history of Schools for the People. Nor must the indirect influence of the Grammar Schools just considered be overlooked. These Schools, though themselves failing as direct agents in educating the poorer classes, were the means of keeping alive an amount of interest in educational subjects, which, but for their existence, would probably have been much slower in developing itself.

Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge.—The clergy of the Established Church may fairly claim the merit of first awakening public feeling to the absolute necessity of something being done, with the special object of improving the educational condition of the working classes. One of the original objects of the

'Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge,' was the spread of schools among the poor. It is true at the time of its establishment the education it promoted was the inculcation of the religious views of the Church of England, and any idea of religious liberty or independent opinion was as far as possible suppressed. However, from whatever source it originated, the first years of last century marked the commencement of a great educational movement, having for its object the establishment of a School for the Poor in every parish in the kingdom. This was carried on in the way described under the chapter on Parochial Charity Schools. The clergy were not long in establishing these Institutions in all parts. Before the end of twenty years, some sort of Charity School was in operation in nearly every large parish of importance, in London, and in the chief provincial towns.

Taken advantage of by the Poor.—These Schools differed from the Grammar Schools, inasmuch as they were taken advantage of exclusively by the working classes. They were more within the reach of the poor, and the endeavours of the clergy in their respective parishes had the effect of securing that the accommodation was made use of by those for whom it was intended. In this sense, the Parochial Charity School Period forms a more practical commencement of the 'Schools for the People' than the class of Institution which has been previously considered.

Cost prevented Extension.—Although the increase in the number of Parochial Charity Schools was great, yet they provided for only a small portion of the children growing up in ignorance; nor could they reach the agricultural and remoter parts of the country. Inasmuch as the pupils were clothed, as well as educated, the necessary expenses were heavy, and as the whole cost fell on private subscriptions, a want of funds seriously impeded their extension.

Sectarian character of Schools.—One feature which these Schools possessed was that they were in all cases rigidly sectarian in their teaching, and Dissenting parents either had to strain their consciences, or else give up nearly the only available means within their reach for the education of their children. Towards the middle and end of the century, the Dissenting population became more and more numerous, and the absolute necessity of some more liberal measures was felt to a greater extent year by year.

No attempt appears, however, to have been made by Dissenters to establish any regular system of Day Schools for themselves. Their Sunday Schools, however, rapidly increased from the year 1783, and they were even in advance of the Church of England in their desire to adopt this means of imparting Christian knowledge, according to their own particular tenets, to the rising generation.

Pestalozzi's System.—The influence exercised by Pestalozzi during the last part of the eighteenth century, though not at the time felt so much in England as on the Continent, should be noticed as an important fact in the history of the development of education. To his teaching must be attributed the commencement of a complete change in the aspect of Elementary Schools. His views were introduced into this country chiefly by the Home and Colonial School Society, and are so important that the following brief summary of their principles, as endeavoured to be carried out by that Society, may be quoted:—

'1st. That Education relates to the whole man; and consists in the drawing forth, strengthening, and perfecting all the faculties with which an all-wise Creator has endowed him—physical, intellectual, and moral—or, to use Pestalozzi's own words, "Education has to do with the hand, the head, and the heart."

'2nd. That these faculties should be developed progressively, harmoniously, and simultaneously. To effect this, instruction should be carefully, but not too minutely, graduated. Care should also be taken to exercise every faculty, not singly, but in combination, and all in that proportion which ensures harmony in the whole; following, as far as practicable, the order in which they are naturally developed, and bearing in mind that the moral powers take the precedence, and require the most careful and unremitting culture.

'3rd. That, with a view to ensure healthy activity in the faculties, the teacher should not commence with symbols and abstractions, but with realities and particulars—he should proceed from the known to the unknown—from particulars to generals—from examples to rules. This is inverting the old order of teaching. But who does not now acknowledge it to be the most rational and philosophical course?

'4th. That the child must not be treated as a mineral, which can only increase by accretion; but as an organic being, that

progresses to maturity by the unfolding of all its powers, exercised on the materials presented to them.

'5th. That, as the child advances in age, the character of his instruction should be suited to a more matured state of mind: thus the process of *induction* is substituted for that of *deduction*; and whilst the elements of knowledge are the materials of the earliest lessons, subjects as a whole, and in their complex character, must be presented to the advanced pupil. Pestalozzi's expression is, "that we should *commence* instruction at the natural *point de départ*, and at a later period start from the artificial *point de départ*."

'6th. It follows that the work of the teacher ought to be analytical—that he should reduce his subjects to their elements; whilst that of the learner ought to be synthetical—the latter should build up his knowledge himself under the guidance of a superior mind, and thus, in fact, be his own educator.

'Finally. The same principles equally apply to moral as to intellectual culture. Precepts should be deduced from actions; and what objects are to intellectual instruction, actions should be to moral. But the Christian educator must never forget that the precious germ to be expanded has a disease—the child has a fallen nature—it inherits the disease of sin, and the only remedy to be sought is the Gospel of Jesus Christ.'

Institutions for those Physically afflicted.—The rise of many of the noble institutions, supported by charity, for the education of those members of the community who are the subjects of various misfortunes, followed the introduction of the Parochial Schools. The Royal Asylum of St. Ann's Society, established in 1702, the Asylum for Female Orphans, and the Clergy Orphan School, &c., were among the first; and later, the Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb originated in London in 1792, and the School for the Indigent Blind in 1799. These last inaugurated a system which endeavours to overcome physical defects by the appliances of science. The results of some of these institutions, which have gradually spread over the country, are but too little known. Operations which, at one time, were looked upon as miraculous, such as the teaching of the deaf and dumb to speak, instructing the blind to read and write and use the most delicate musical instruments, are now accomplished as everyday occurrences in hundreds of Institutions. In later years, idiots have been taught, and made, to a considerable extent, useful

members of society; and cripples have been so trained as to be rendered capable, in many cases, of carrying on some profitable occupation.

Results of these Institutions.—This branch of education, which has been the means of converting thousands of helpless, useless creatures into intelligent and useful members of society, has been established by, and, up to this moment, continues dependent solely on private benevolence. Of all the works of charity in this country, these schools may perhaps be regarded with the greatest satisfaction. They require little more than some systematic or even official supervision to ensure careful vigilance in the expenditure, which, whilst it should provide liberally for all legitimate wants, should, at the same time, guard against any waste or unnecessary staff. With these provisions, nothing is more to be desired than such an extension of this work of philanthropy as would embrace all who are so unfortunate as to be eligible for admission to such institutions.

3RD.—THE EDUCATIONAL SOCIETY PERIOD, EXTENDING FROM 1808 UNTIL 1833.

Leading Features, and Causes which led to its Origin.—Towards the end of the last century, the great majority of the Parochial Charity Schools appear gradually to have lost much of the life and energy which had originally characterised them, and to have fallen into the torpid condition which the Grammar Schools exhibited. The work, however, of a hundred years, spent on the education of the people, had not been lost. Coupled, as it was, with the great increase in the diffusion of literature, through the introduction of cheap printing, it tended materially to bring about the British School System in the early years of the present century. This liberal scheme of education was the natural reaction from the exclusive principles of the Parochial Charity Schools. It owed its origin to the Quaker, Joseph Lancaster; and, because of the liberty of conscience, which was one of its chief features, a British School was considered to be exclusively and necessarily in connection with the Dissenters. Such, however, was not the case, as, from the first, British Schools, both on their Board of management and among their pupils, were supported by a considerable proportion of members of the Church of England as well as by those of other persuasions.

Rapid Extension of Sunday Schools.—The British Schools spread with even greater rapidity than the Parochial Charity Schools had just a hundred years before. So great was the success of the movement, that Lancaster's work must be considered as forming the commencement of the next educational epoch. The same period also witnessed the extension of Sunday Schools in connection with all denominations. This took place after the system of voluntary teachers had become almost universal.

The National Society—Rivalry.—Zealous efforts in the cause of education on the part of the Church of England were once more kindled by the success which had attended the work of Lancaster, and, a few years later, the National Society was formed, for educating children on what was called the Madras system. The schools connected with this system were exclusively and specially founded on the religious principles of the Established Church, as set forth in the Liturgy and Catechism. The motive which led to this movement was, to a great extent, the desire of spreading the religious opinions of the Establishment, as the clergy felt that, without the counteracting influence of the Church of England, the views likely to be inculcated by an uninterrupted extension of British Schools would be prejudicial. So far their convictions must be respected, and their conduct commended. But, reviewing the circumstances after the lapse of sixty years, it cannot but be regretted that the rival systems should have given rise to such hot dispute, or that the merit of priority should have become so serious a cause of dissension. Abundant work existed to tax the energy and resources of both Societies, and to give ample scope to the carrying out of either plan. Friendly rivalry, and a respect for the conscientious opinions of each other, would have stimulated the action and increased the operations of both during the next thirty years, for which space of time they were the practical workers in extending the education of the country.

Religious Intolerance still a difficulty.—This feeling of antagonism between those professing different religious views in carrying out the work of educating the poor, is unfortunately the great difficulty to be contended against, even at the present day; nor, in this respect, do persons seem likely to profit by the experience of those who have gone before them. This may be seen by a reference to the parliamentary debates of the last session, and the opinions expressed by different persons at educational meetings

held during the discussion on the Act of 1870. The clergy, both of the Established Church and of all denominations, have, unfortunately, been somewhat conspicuous in this matter. This is the more to be regretted, inasmuch as to their exertions must be mainly attributed the bringing about of the various educational improvements, and extending them largely to the poor. So exclusive and illiberal, however, at times have members of their order been, that many persons deny them the credit to which they are justly entitled—namely, that of being, as a class, the pioneers of education.

Work of the Societies—Parliamentary Action.—For nearly thirty years—that is, from 1808 to 1834—the transactions of the National Society, and of the British and Foreign School Society, form almost the only leading features in the chronicles of the spread of education among the working classes in England. During this period, the subject was repeatedly brought before the notice of Parliament, chiefly by the energy of the late Lord Brougham, when a member of the House of Commons. In 1816 he moved for a committee to inquire into the state of education in London, Westminster, and Southwark. As a result of this investigation it appeared that there were no fewer than 130,000 children within the area embraced for whom no means of instruction were provided. Two years later a Select Committee was appointed 'to inquire into the education of the lower orders,' and in the same year a Commission was formed to investigate the application of charitable funds for the purposes of education in England and Wales.

Commencement of Training System.—An important branch of the work of both Societies, and one in which they showed themselves to be considerably in advance of the times, was their endeavour to improve the qualifications and to increase the supply of teachers of Elementary Schools. One of the first works undertaken by them was that of affording facilities for young persons of both sexes to come to London and there to undergo a course of a few months' training, with a view to qualify them for teaching. This measure, though far from meeting the requirements, was the commencement of a general system of training, and so far developed, under the private management of the Societies, that at the time when Government assistance was introduced a number of Institutions were in existence, on which

the new system could be readily grafted and made to produce excellent results.

The 1st Educational Bill, 1820.—These two inquiries preceded the introduction in 1820 of Mr. Brougham's 'Bill for better promoting the means of education for His Majesty's subjects in England and Wales.' This was the first Elementary Education Bill ever submitted to Parliament. By this measure it was proposed to levy, in addition to the poor's-rate, a tax of not more than 4*d.* in the pound, which was to be applied to the remuneration of local schoolmasters. These schoolmasters were to be members of the Church of England, and were to be appointed by the ratepayers in vestry assembled, subject to the examination by the rector, vicar, or curate of the parish, as to their qualifications. The Treasury was also to be authorised to issue building grants to schools in places where a complaint was made at the quarter-sessions of a deficiency of school accommodation. One penny per week was to be paid by each scholar, who was to be instructed in the Catechism and Liturgy, in addition to the ordinary elementary subjects, and to attend church on Sunday. The children of parents objecting to this last proviso were, on application, to be excluded from the religious teaching. The Bill met with great opposition from the Dissenters, who considered it entirely a Church of England measure, and it was withdrawn. The subject of national education, in connection with public aid, was not again considered for thirteen years, namely, until after the passing of the Reform Bill in 1832.

4TH.—THE PERIOD DURING WHICH PUBLIC GRANTS WERE MADE, TO ENCOURAGE EDUCATION, BUT WERE LIMITED TO THE ERECTION OF BUILDINGS AND THE PARTIAL AID TO TRAINING COLLEGES—FROM 1834 TO 1846.

Mode of controlling Grants.—The Fourth Educational Period, in which grants were made for the building of schools from the public funds, began a year after the great political event above referred to. This period may be subdivided, namely, from 1834 to 1839, when the Lords of the Treasury acted as dispensers of the grants; and from 1839 to 1846, when the Committee of Council was entrusted by Parliament with the entire responsibility. From 1834 to 1839 the sums voted for education amounted to 20,000*l.* each year, with an addition of 10,000*l.*,

in 1838, to Scotland. The work of recommending for the Treasury's approval the mode in which money should be apportioned to schools was, during these years, carried out by the two Educational Societies which had been so prominent during the Third Period. From and after the year 1839, the responsibility of selecting and deciding on applications for aid was removed from the Societies, and was undertaken by the Committee of Council, which had been specially formed for that purpose.

Training of Teachers.—From the commencement of the present century, as has been already remarked, an important agency had been at work, whereby the progress of education and the spread of schools had been materially aided. This was the establishment of colleges for the training of teachers for elementary schools. Early in the eighteenth century (about 1710), some feeble efforts were made to improve those teachers who were engaged in the Parochial Charity Schools. No regular system of training, however, was adopted, chiefly on account of the expense and the difficulty of forming central institutions, owing to the cost and tediousness of travelling.

Importance of a Supply of Teachers.—The want of teachers and the difficulty of obtaining them are so often met with that it is feared the repeated references to them in almost every branch of the subject may appear tedious to the reader of these pages. It is clear, however, that the extension of schools can only keep pace with the supply of persons qualified to take charge of them. The organisation of a proper system of training is a somewhat lengthy process and cannot be accomplished hastily, even with ample pecuniary resources. Many schemes for the advancement of education have been frustrated by the difficulty of supplying the required machinery for instruction. The time absolutely necessary to complete the training of a competent teacher varies considerably, but it usually extends over several years. It is found better to train from childhood expressly for the occupation of teaching, as is done under the Pupil-Teacher System, rather than to employ those who choose it for their vocation later in life. Such being the case, it is evident that the adoption of means for supplying teachers must always precede any effort for the extension of schools. The carrying out of this object involves the exercise of a considerable amount of patience and foresight; and for such work, the fruits of which

cannot be reaped for several years, it is never easy to obtain a very large amount of voluntary assistance.

Bell and Lancaster's Training—Improvement by Public Grants.—The period of training, as originally defined both by Bell and Lancaster, was usually limited to a few months, their object being not so much to systematically educate, as to accustom the young teacher to that particular technical mode of imparting instruction to others which was carried on at the Model Schools founded by them. As the education of the country advanced, considerable improvement was made in the method of training. It was not, however, until the introduction of State aid that a thorough education, specially framed with the view of enabling a person to teach others, could be obtained in the manner now considered necessary. As long as schools continued to be badly supported, and dependent almost entirely on charity, it was not reasonable to expect that young persons of promise would select an occupation offering such uncertain prospects, and involving at the same time considerable preliminary expenses before they could be competent to undertake it.

Importance of State Aid to Training.—The supply of teachers has gradually increased, as the pecuniary prospects of the occupation have improved. The assistance granted by Government towards the necessary expenses of training has also greatly encouraged persons to adopt the profession of Elementary School teaching. This aid begins with the first year in which a Pupil Teacher commences his work, and continues until he leaves the Training College a highly educated man, which he may become, if he take advantage of his opportunities.

Children's Fees—Evidence of the Societies.—Among the details in the history both of the National and British Schools, important experience is to be gained regarding the subject of children's fees. A very large number, if not nearly all the schools first established by these Societies, were free schools, the feeling of their founders being that, as their object was to teach the children of the poor, they would place no difficulty in the way of attendance by requiring the parents to supply even so small a sum as a penny a-week for schooling. Before the year 1830, however, nearly all schools had adopted a system of enforcing some small weekly fee from each child. It is true that the object which at first led to this being resorted to was, in most

instances, to increase the resources of the schools; but it was universally found that the attendance became more regular, and the children's progress more satisfactory, when they were paying something for the instruction which they received.

5TH.—THE PERIOD DURING WHICH PUBLIC GRANTS HAVE BEEN MADE IN AID OF THE ANNUAL EXPENSES OF SCHOOLS—FROM 1846 TILL THE PRESENT DAY.

Great Results obtained.—The practical results of the work effected during this last epoch in the history of English education, extending over twenty-five years, far exceeds those of the previous century and a half, and the quality of the instruction imparted to the children has improved in a like proportion. During this time nearly all Elementary Schools have accepted the assistance offered out of the public funds. The improved methods of teaching, and the general advance in the art of school management, must be attributed to a great extent to the action produced by an influential and independent branch of the Government, established for the purpose of attending to this matter. It seems to be generally accepted, that the voluntary principle, had State aid not been introduced, could not have accomplished, single-handed, results equivalent to those which have been attained with the assistance thus afforded.

Development of Schools for Physical Defects.—Throughout this same period the extension of Institutions for various modes of training those suffering from physical defects and other misfortunes, already alluded to, such as Blind Schools, Deaf and Dumb Schools, &c., has gone on rapidly. In spite of the deficient state of the education of the country at the present time, the improvement in it which has been effected since 1846 is immense. The details of the regulations of the Education Department during these years, and the history of the various schools, are so fully given in this volume that it will be merely necessary in this place thus briefly to consider their general and collective influence on the social aspect of the country.

Science and Art Education.—It was chiefly in this period that the subject of an advanced and special scientific training came more under consideration. As early as 1836 the development of Art was encouraged by the formation of Schools of Design. Their action, however, was not great before 1846, nor indeed did

it become important until the Great Exhibition in London, in 1851, had shown incontestably that in manufactures the Art of this country was inferior to that of the Continent. As regards the teaching of science bearing on industrial pursuits, up to the formation of the Science and Art Department in 1853, little or nothing had been attempted. The steady working of that Department in science, especially after the introduction of the general scheme in 1860, has gradually produced important results, and in no small degree impressed the public mind with the necessity for an advanced education. The inferiority of the English manufactured goods exhibited at the Paris Exhibition in 1867 was so clearly attributable to the deficient education of the artisan, that much alarm was spread in consequence. This agitation immediately produced a marked increase in the number of pupils at the Science Schools, as well as convinced the public that no scheme of national education could be complete without providing ample means for scientific instruction for the artisan class.

Commencement of a new Epoch.—The year 1870 must be looked upon as the commencement of another epoch in the history of English education. Hitherto, the assistance of Government towards the work of teaching the poorer classes has been confined to those places eligible to receive grants on account of their fulfilling the necessary conditions, by producing a certain amount of voluntary local effort. Where nothing has been done by private energy, the State has not interfered, but allowed the children to go without the opportunities for improvement. The change now about to commence will be more important than any which has yet taken place. Voluntary effort, largely aided by the State, has led to the present condition of affairs, but has been manifestly unable to reach the lowest and most numerous class of society. Every feasible plan has been suggested, by which these thousands may be included amongst those receiving the benefits of education, and it has been decided that nothing will avail but the power of a compulsory measure, even though it be unnecessary to enforce it except in rare instances. Such is the main object of the Act passed last Session, by which it is hoped that those hitherto neglected may be duly cared for, even in places where local philanthropy and voluntary assistance are unknown.

Difficulties already overcome—General Prospects.—The inauguration of such a scheme has raked up all the discussions which have taken place from time to time even as far back as 1820, when Lord Brougham first introduced an Educational Bill into Parliament; and religious zeal has again been too frequently perverted into bigotry, and allowed to become the cause of ill-feeling and paper warfare. Nothing but the public determination to throw over all other considerations except that of requiring that children should be taught, enabled the present measure to be settled at the end of last Session. Many of the details of this new Bill will no doubt undergo changes before, in practical working, it is found to accomplish all that is desired. In spite of this, however, the operation of the enactments cannot fail very shortly to be felt, and this sixth period now dawning upon us bids fair to make such a change in the condition of all, that its operation in a few years must influence for good a larger number than that affected by the efforts of former epochs. If, the one principle on which it was framed is maintained and carried out, namely, that in some way or other every child in the kingdom shall be taught, if only the rudiments of knowledge, the year 1870 will have to be looked back upon as not only inaugurating a new system of education, but as commencing a Reformation in Society in no way second in importance to the great religious event of the sixteenth century.

Past Experiences.—What the effect of the late Act will be upon the future prospects of the Schools for the People is the consideration which at the present time is uppermost in the minds of all who are interested in educational matters. The history of the past is generally useful in directing operations which are to come, and perhaps few subjects afford more profitable experience and suggestions for action than the varied plans by which the educational edifice now existing has been built up.

Existing Difficulties.—The great defect of present educational arrangements is not as regards the quality of the instruction or their capability of affording the means of improvement to almost all varieties and classes of persons. A careful study of the schools included in this volume will convince all that a machinery is already at work designed to meet the educational requirements of almost every class of child. It cannot even be said that the provision is insufficient for the demand, inasmuch as the school accommodation, except in some few places, is

much in excess of the number of children in attendance. The evil lies in the fact that the provision is more than sufficient for the demand—that, in spite of the myriads of children growing up in ignorance, no means have been forthcoming for filling schools, the managers of which are willing and anxious to take in as many pupils as they are able to receive. Nothing would be hailed with greater pleasure by all who are working in this direction, than that a cry should arise from the people themselves, complaining that their children were refused admission for want of room. This difficulty would soon be surmounted, and Schools for the People would rapidly spring up equal to the demand. Before such a happy result can be obtained it may be necessary to resort to some compulsory measures as provided in the new Act; but whatever these means effect, the ultimate aim must be to make all value education for its own sake. To induce persons to receive an advantage which now they do not appreciate, and would in many cases rather be without, is therefore one of the great difficulties which this Sixth Epoch will have to remove.

Statistics of Teachers required, &c.—Whenever the enactment is carried out, which requires that all children from three to twelve years of age shall be at school, an increase in the number to be taught, to the extent of about 2,150,000, is anticipated. Judging from the past, the great difficulty will be to obtain an adequate supply of teachers for the large number of new schools which will have to be brought into existence. No plan seems to have been so effective for creating efficient teachers as the Pupil Teacher system. With the multiplication of schools, a corresponding increase in the number of Pupil Teachers may be fairly anticipated, and thus in the course of a few years, when these have served their apprenticeship, a considerable addition to the number of candidates for admission to the Training Colleges may be looked for. It is to be feared, however, that this will be insufficient. The Training Colleges are not now full, though the present complement of Pupil Teachers, even not taking into account those who enter to be trained without having been apprenticed, would be ample to supply the 1,250 annual vacancies, were they all, or a fair proportion of them, to continue the vocation of teaching. Taking the number of scholars to each certificated teacher as 85, the training system of the country must furnish about 2,000 new teachers a-year, in

order to keep up the number necessary for all the schools now at work, and for those which will have to be formed. Besides this, a staff of 27,000 Instructors, in addition to those already at work, must be provided, to start with.

Mistresses can be obtained.—The question is, how is this to be accomplished? The experience of the past may assist in finding a solution of the problem. The number of good Teachers has of late years gradually increased, partly owing to the augmentation of their stipends, and partly to the importance of their employment being duly recognised as entitling them to take a higher social position. Formerly, when Teachers were dependent solely on voluntary subscriptions, few young persons of promise entered on the occupation. It was literally true that 'when too old to feed the pigs, swineherds took to keeping the schools.' Since the introduction of State aid, however, matters have considerably improved. There seems to be every probability that, with the inducements now held out, a sufficient supply of young women to train as Mistresses may be obtained. This is the more fortunate, as, from the statistics on page 27 it is evident that, at the present time, the branch which requires to be most added to is that composed of Infant Teachers and Mistresses.

Masters: how to obtain a Supply.—There is still, however, a great scarcity of Masters, and the male Training Colleges cannot be filled. From the Education Department Report, 1867–8, it appears that the average annual earnings of the Masters was 88*l.* 18*s.* 5*d.* from all sources, and that 100*l.* a-year was the maximum which any Teacher, except some very few, could ever hope to attain. It is true that they are not liable to loss or much fluctuation in salary, that they have good holidays and short hours, and, in many cases, a house or lodging is provided for them, rent free. Notwithstanding these advantages, the occupation cannot be looked upon, in a pecuniary point of view, as superior to that of a first-class mechanic; and while it remains so, it is not likely that many, except persons belonging to the industrial class, will enter on it. Even these, however, must find considerable difficulty in encouraging the bent of their inclinations in this direction, as the average payment to a Pupil Teacher is, generally, barely equal to what he might earn, if a sharp lad, at an ordinary calling. It must also not be forgotten that, during the time a youth is at the Training College, he is

earning next to nothing, and it must require a very great effort for the parents of a poor family to supply him with clothes and other necessaries for the two years he has to be under instruction.

Prospects of Advancement for Masters.—Besides an increase of salary, the prospect of advancement for extra ability might be urged as an inducement to eligible persons to come forward and qualify as Teachers. The recognised necessity of combining scientific instruction with the ordinary training of the artisan class, would seem to suggest a means of carrying out this idea. A superior Training College might be established, to which a certain number of the most efficient Elementary School Teachers might, by competition or otherwise, be admitted, to pursue their education in advanced science subjects. Superior appointments, fairly remunerated, such as Science Teachers in provincial towns or districts, might be open to those who had passed through this higher course of training. This would induce many to enter the profession who are now discouraged from a knowledge that, even with the utmost zeal and perseverance in their duties, their position, in a pecuniary point of view, can never rise beyond that of a first-class mechanic.

Combination and Mutual Working in Schools. Another point which the experience of the past seems to suggest is an increased amount of combination and mutual working between schools. Without advocating the formation of colossal institutions, except perhaps in some crowded districts, a saving of teaching power, a more efficient management, and many other advantages would accrue, were the education of the children of a district concentrated in one building, instead of being split up into innumerable little schools, with ten or twenty pupils in each, such as are now to be found in all parts of the country. The collection of children in fewer buildings, accommodating a larger number, has many advantages. It is likely to ensure regular systematic teaching, and proper division into classes; and it would tend to check that migrating from one school to another which is now so common and so destructive to all progress.

Gradation of Schools.—In another way also this combination and mutual working between schools might produce great benefit, particularly in large towns. It would enable regulations to be made, by which children should be required to pass through the course of instruction given at one school before

entering another. We should not then find an infant of four or five sitting with a boy of nine or ten, as is now so common. Each would have his place, decided by his age and acquirements, and be compelled to pass from a lower to a higher stage, according to his proficiency. The effect of this would be that all children of ordinary intelligence might read, write, and master the first four rules of arithmetic by eight or nine years of age. That this is possible is shown by the result which has followed the teaching of children brought up at an efficient Infant School and passed on to a Day School, the two having worked together harmoniously on the same system.

Time for Science Instruction.—If this alone were effected, and all children at eight or nine years of age could read, write, and do the first four rules of arithmetic, it would revolutionise the condition of the working classes. The time, however, which after this age will in future remain before children are to leave school, would enable almost every one of them to go through what is now considered an advanced course. Time will be secured in the Primary School for inculcating the elementary principles of Mechanics and the various sciences connected with Industrial occupations. A knowledge of the rudiments of Animal Physiology, and of the laws which regulate the functions of the human body, is desirable for all, particularly for girls; and a course of instruction in these subjects might well be introduced, even at ten or eleven years of age. During these three or four years a skilful Teacher will be able, without any undue strain or cramming, to pass a child through those portions of the study of these subjects which are tedious and wearying when commenced by an adult. The practical working of such instruction with children of these ages cannot be seen to better advantage than at the Birkbeck School, Peckham, under Mr. Sheilds.

Advanced Evening Classes.—Having been at school until twelve years of age, children will have received a training qualifying them for the practical duties before them, in whatever branch of industrial occupation they may be placed. The boys will have advanced sufficiently to take an interest in what they learn. They will be able, and many, it is hoped, will be anxious, to continue to devote one or two evenings in the week to a further prosecution of their studies. Evening Classes will then afford them every facility, and it will soon become necessary to

extend the instruction at these schools to more advanced subjects, instead of confining it to reading and writing.

Scholarships and Exhibitions.—Little will then remain but the conversion of the Grammar Schools and other educational charities into Institutions giving a sound and advanced course of education, open by competition or otherwise to the best pupils of Elementary Schools. A certain part of the funds will, it is hoped, be set aside for Scholarships, so that the poorest lad, if he has the ability to gain admission, may not be debarred by poverty from prosecuting his studies. The regulations of the Science and Art Department for Scholarships and Local Exhibitions already enable a boy of over twelve years of age to receive a small grant while continuing his studies. The Exhibitions from the Grammar Schools to the Universities will, it is hoped, be made to supply the final link in the chain necessary for securing to all the means of the highest advancement in learning. Ability will then be the main requisite. Poverty, or the want of opportunity, will not be urged by any, as means will exist to bridge over the difficulties which now impede the progress of a deserving child from working his way from the Elementary Infant School to the highest position to be attained at the University.

Conclusion.—Such, in a few years, may be the practical result of two Acts of Parliament, namely, the Endowed Schools Act, 1869, and the Elementary Education Act, 1870. The motive power has been created, and the determination of the country is taken; nothing remains but to design the necessary machinery wherewith to carry out the work. It is not likely that this country, so advanced in enterprise and intelligence, will be wanting to this end, now that it is fully alive to its importance. The Schools of the People will then afford instruction not only to the poorest class, but to every individual member of the poorest class, and not only to those whose parents desire to see them improved, but to those who are so unfortunate as to be the offspring of persons too ignorant to know the value of education, or utterly callous and apathetic as to their welfare. They will also give an opportunity to all to develope any talents they may possess to the greatest extent, and at the same time guide them in using such advantages not only for their own benefit, but for their country's welfare and advancement.

2. CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE OF IMPORTANT EVENTS BEARING ON THE EDUCATION OF THE PEOPLE.

YEAR	IMPORTANT EVENT	PERIOD
1449	Printing Invented.	Grammar School Period.
1534	The Reformation in England.	
1698	Formation of Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge.	
1702	First Parochial Charity Schools opened.	
1712	Greenwich School for Orphans of Sailors commenced.	
1730	Circulating Schools commenced in Wales.	Parochial Charity School Period
1745	Pestalozzi born.	
1783	Sunday Schools begun in Gloucester.	
1791	First School for the Blind opened in Liverpool.	
1792	First Deaf and Dumb School opened in London.	
1798	Joseph Lancaster established his first School.	
1802	First Factory Act for regulating the employment of children in the manufacture of textile fabrics.	
1803	Sunday School Union formed.	
1808	Royal Lancastrian Society founded.	
1811	Systematic arrangements made for Army Schools.	
1811	National Society founded.	
1811	First School exclusively for Adults opened in Bala, Wales.	
1812	First Adult Schools opened in Bristol.	Educational Society Period.
1814	British and Foreign School Society founded.	
1816	Mr. Brougham's Committee of the House of Commons to inquire into educational condition of London, Westminster, and Southwark.	
1818	Mr. Brougham's Committee on Education of lower orders generally.	
1819	Ragged Schools originated by John Pounds.	
1819	Charity Commissioners appointed at the instance of Mr. Brougham.	
1820	Mr. Brougham's first Education Bill.	
1824	London Mechanics' Institution founded.	

YEAR	IMPORTANT EVENT	PERIOD
1834	First Parliamentary vote for Education.	
1834	Select Committee of House of Commons to inquire into means for establishing a National System of Education.	
1836	First Parliamentary vote to Schools of Design.	
1836	Home and Colonial Infant School Society instituted.	Period of Parliamentary Grants towards the Building of Schools.
1838	Select Committee on Education of Poorer Classes in England and Wales.	
1839	Formation of Committee of Council on Education.	
1840	Wesleyan Education Committee founded.	
1843	Sir J. Graham's Factory Bill rejected by Parliament.	
1843	Congregational Board of Education founded.	
1844	Ragged School Union established.	
1846	Committee of Council Minutes passed to make Annual Grants to Schools.	
1847	Roman Catholic Poor School Committee founded.	
1852	Department of Practical Art formed.	
1853	Science and Art Department formed.	
1856	Sir J. Pakington's Education Bill.	
1856	Lord J. Russell's Education Bill.	
1856	Mr. Cobden's Education Bill.	
1856	Office of Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education constituted.	
1857	Industrial Schools Act passed.	
1858	Duke of Newcastle's Commission to inquire into the state of popular education in England appointed.	Period of Parliamentary Grants towards the Annual Expenses of Schools.
1861	Report of Duke of Newcastle's Commission published.	
1864	Act passed to extend the Factory Acts.	
1865	Report of Select Committee of House of Commons on Education.	
1866	Appointment of Schools Inquiry Commission. Report issued 1867.	
1866	Report of Select Committee on Education.	
1867	Factory Acts extended to every kind of trade.	
1868	Report of Select Committee of House of Commons on Scientific Instruction (Mr. Samuelson).	
1868	Duke of Marlborough's Education Bill.	
1869	Endowed Schools Act passed.	
1870	ELEMENTARY EDUCATION ACT PASSED.	

3. STATISTICS OF CHILDREN IN EXISTING 'SCHOOLS FOR THE PEOPLE.'

Estimated Population receiving weekly wages or falling within the classes for whose benefit the Parliamentary Grants were voted in 1869		18,745,378
Of these there must be aged from 3 to 12, all of whom should be either at Day or Infant School		3,936,513

NUMBERS KNOWN TO BE IN AVERAGE ATTENDANCE AT SCHOOL.

I. SCHOOLS RECEIVING STATE AID OR INSPECTED ONLY.

1. EDUCATION DEPARTMENT.		
1. Schools connected with National Society or Church of England	808,364	1,093,570
2. British, Wesleyan, and other Schools not connected with Church of England	217,438	
3. Roman Catholic Schools	67,768	
Schools Inspected only:		
1. Schools connected with National Society or Church of England	11,346	14,216
2. British, Wesleyan, and other Schools not connected with Church of England	2,803	
3. Roman Catholic Schools	67	
2. SCIENCE AND ART DEPARTMENT. The 180,000 who are taught Science and Drawing are practically all either above 12 years of age or are attending Day Schools and are therefore included in some other category	...	Nil
3. THE ADMIRALTY. With the exception of the orphans, &c., at Greenwich, these are all above 12 years of age	...	500
4. THE WAR DEPARTMENT. Soldiers' children, say		20,000
5. THE HOME OFFICE.		
Industrial Schools	3,565	8,454*
Reformatory Schools	4,889	
6. THE POOR LAW BOARD.		
Workhouse Schools	37,738	41,215*
District Schools	3,477	
7. THE COMMISSIONERS OF LUNACY, say		1,000*

II. SCHOOLS NOT RECEIVING STATE AID.

Birkbeck Schools	2,000	5,248
Schools for the Blind	748	
Schools for Cripples	200	
Schools for the Deaf and Dumb	1,000	
Ward Schools	1,300	
Evening Schools, Mechanics' Institutions, Cathedral Schools	Practically all these are over 12 years of age.	200,000†
Parochial Charity Schools (not in connection with the Education Department), Orphan Schools, Ragged Schools, Dame Schools.‡ Private Schools.‡ Sunday Schools.§ Friends' First-Day Schools.§	Impossible to give the number exactly. A great many are over 12 years of age.	
Total number of Scholars in Schools for the People		1,384,203

* A large number of these are over 12 years of age.

† This number is a rough estimate and is probably much in excess of those who can be said to be properly instructed. It would also include those few National and other Schools not under the Education Department.

‡ Impossible to give the number, but the instruction is in most cases worth very little.

§ The numbers attending these are largely made up of those in one or other of the above categories. Those who attend these Schools, and not Day Schools, receive but little, if any, secular instruction.

4. STATISTICS OF TEACHING STAFF REQUIRED FOR THE FUTURE 'SCHOOLS FOR THE PEOPLE.'

Estimated Population in England and Wales for whom 'Schools for the People' are required . . .	18,745,378
Proportions of these who are within the ages of 3 to 12 .	3,936,513
Estimated number of these under instruction in existing Schools for the People	1,384,203
Estimated number to be instructed in the future Schools, after deducting 10 per cent. for absentees of all kinds	2,158,659
Of these about one-third are Infants aged from 3 to 6, say .	720,000
Another third, Girls, are aged from 6 to 12, say . .	720,000
Another third, Boys, are aged from 6 to 12, say . .	720,000
Allowing that one trained Teacher is required for every 85 Pupils, this would involve a staff, in addition to that at present at work, of 8,500 Infant Mistresses, 8,500 Mistresses, and 8,500 Masters. Total . .	25,500
To maintain this extra staff, *when formed*, calculating that each Teacher's work averages 20 years, it would be necessary to train each year 425 more Infant Mistresses, 425 more Mistresses, and 425 more Masters. Total .	1,275
If the existing Male Colleges were full they could provide for 400 more Students, or give a two years' course to 200 Students a year more than they do at present. Additional male accommodation would therefore be required for	450
Existing Female Training Colleges are full. To keep up the staff, *when formed*, additional accommodation would therefore be necessary, as follows:—	
Infant School Teachers undergoing a one year's course of training	425
Elder Girls' School Teachers having a two years' course of training	850

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

IN CONNECTION WITH THE

COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL

ON

EDUCATION.

NATIONAL SCHOOLS.

BRITISH SCHOOLS.

WESLEYAN SCHOOLS.

ROMAN CATHOLIC SCHOOLS.

CONGREGATIONAL SCHOOLS.

JEWS' SCHOOLS.

INFANT SCHOOLS.

EVENING SCHOOLS.

5. THE COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL ON EDUCATION.

Regulations concerning Elementary Schools.

Origin of Committee of Council—Previous Regulations.—The history of the Education Department dates from April 10, 1839, when Her Majesty was pleased, by an Order in Council, 'to appoint a Committee of Council to superintend the application of any sums voted by Parliament for the purpose of promoting Public Education.' For several years previously, amounts had been taken on the estimates for this object, and their expenditure entrusted to the Lords of the Treasury, who were empowered to aid in the building of school premises, through the agency of the two great Educational bodies—the National Society and the British and Foreign School Society.

Conditions of Building Grants—Inspection—Religious Teaching.—The Committee of Council continued to give aid in the building of schools, but decided not to limit their grants to those in connection with the two above-named Societies. The indispensable condition for receiving aid, which was laid down almost at the outset, was, that 'grants to schools should, on no account, be made, unless the right of inspection were permanently retained by the State, in order to secure a conformity to the regulations and discipline established in the several schools, with such improvements as may, from time to time, be suggested by the Committee of Council.' The Committee also resolved that aid should only be granted to schools which were in connection with some religious body, or in which the Holy Scriptures were read daily. This was enforced by the Instructions to Inspectors of Schools, dated August 1840, which, although they did not authorise the Inspectors to examine into the religious instruction given in the schools, yet directed them to ask for such information as should satisfy them that no plan of education was

encouraged in which intellectual instruction was 'not subordinate to the regulation of the thoughts and habits of the children by the doctrines and precepts of revealed religion.'

Educational Inquiry.—During the first year of the Committee's existence, a considerable sum was expended on inspection with a view to obtain a thorough knowledge of the educational state of England and Wales.

Regulations for Inspectors—Bishops' Sanction.—The rules for the appointment of Inspectors for visiting schools in connection with the National Society, which had received assistance from the Committee of Council, were settled at a Council meeting held August 10, 1840. These provided that the Archbishops and Bishops should be at liberty to propose persons to act as Inspectors; that, without their consent, no one should be appointed, and further, that, at any time, they were to have power to revoke an appointment. The instructions issued by the Committee of Council to the Inspectors, as far as related to religious teaching in the schools, were to be framed by the Archbishops, and were to form a part of their general instructions. Duplicates of the Reports furnished on all Schools in connection with the National Society or the Church of England were to be transmitted by the Inspector to the Archbishop of the province, and to the Bishop of the diocese in which the school was situated.

Regulations for Building Grants.—The building grants to schools, at this period, were made in proportion to the number of children proposed to be educated, and the amount of money raised for the object by private subscription. In certain cases—as, for instance, in very poor localities—this last condition was waived, at the discretion of the Committee of Council. In deciding on applications, an investigation was first made as to the requirements of the locality, the nature of the title to the land, and particulars concerning the plans, mode of building, &c., six square feet at least being in all cases required for each child. The grant was made on the completion of the premises, subject to the following conditions:—

1st. That for every ten shillings to be granted by the Committee of Council, the means of educating one child (at least) should be provided.

2nd. That the amount of private subscriptions should be received, expended, and accounted for before the public grant was paid.

Duties of Inspectors.—Very careful directions were drawn up in 1839 for the guidance of the Inspectors, whose duties were threefold, viz.:—

1. To inquire concerning applications for aid to erect new schools.

2. To inspect schools already aided.

3. To make inquiries into the educational condition of particular districts. Only in schools connected with the National Church were Inspectors to inquire into the religious teaching. In these, they were to ascertain with special care, how far the doctrines and principles of the Church were instilled into the minds of the children.

Building Plans—Information on Modes of Teaching.—A series of plans and specifications, &c., for school buildings of various sizes, approved by the Committee of Council, was drawn up in 1840, which proved of great assistance to different localities. A paper was also prepared, about the same time, for the use of Teachers, and those interested in education, on the 'Constructive Methods' of teaching, reading, writing, and vocal music, and on the way in which English Primary Schools differed from the best models in the Protestant States of Europe.

Schools to be Visited Twice a Year.—In 1843 a scheme was framed, by which it was arranged that an Inspector should visit and report on each school in his district once every half-year. A separate officer, in no way connected with the Established Church or under the influence of the Bishops, was appointed to visit the British Schools; and, as at that time only seventy-eight had placed themselves under inspection, it was possible for this one officer to see them all twice within the twelve months.

Building Grants extended to Teachers' Houses.—An important additional means of aid was provided in 1843, by extending building grants towards erecting Teachers' houses. Hitherto, assistance of this nature had been limited exclusively to the building of class-rooms. The conditions were:—

1. That the school for which such a house was required had been conveyed to trustees for the education of the children of the poor.

2. That the school was efficient.

3. That the right of inspection of the school attached was secured to the Committee of Council.

4. That the site and premises as a residence for the Teacher were conveyed to trustees.

5. That the building was approved; and,

6. That the local contributions were satisfactory to the Committee of Council.

Aid towards School Furniture.—About this same time, grants were offered to managers, to enable them to provide suitable school furniture and apparatus. This was done with a hope that such aid might prove an incentive to the exertions of the Masters, and be the means of improving and stimulating languishing schools.

Statistics of Increase in Schools.—Up to the year 1844, it was computed that the grants of the Committee of Council had amounted to 170,000*l.* With the exception of a few grants for Masters' houses, this had been entirely devoted to school buildings. During the same time, private subscriptions had been collected to the extent of about 430,000*l.* It was further calculated that from the year 1834, when the first public grant was made, no less than 290,000*l.* had been provided by the State, in addition to between 700,000*l.* and 800,000*l.* raised by private liberality; so that the whole amount devoted during this period to building schools was more than a million sterling.

Deficiency of Income of Schools.—This mode of promoting the education of the poor continued for some years without material alteration; and the number of schools throughout the country was largely multiplied. The remuneration of the Teachers was in most cases precarious and insufficient, and as a consequence, the supply of eligible candidates for training as Teachers was inadequate to the requirements. In 1844 the Committee of Council directed their Inspectors to make inquiries respecting the incomes of the schools, the way in which they were raised, and the manner in which they were expended; with a view to their augmentation, either by judicious economy or improved arrangements. The results of these inquiries showed that, without some further assistance, the condition of a large number of the schools was such that many of them would probably, sooner or later, have to be given up.

Commencement of Annual Grants—Pupil Teachers.—Such being the condition of the schools—so many of which had been erected to a large extent out of the public purse—the Com-

mittee of Council determined to supplement the local resources by annual grants, thus commencing a new and most important era in the history of English education. This was done by the Minutes of August 25, and December 21, 1846. They established the system of Pupil Teachers and Stipendiary Monitors, and of payments to Teachers on account of certificates obtained by them at an annual examination.

Pupil Teachers.

General Regulations.—Memorials had often been received by the Committee of Council, representing the serious loss to schools arising from the early withdrawal of promising children who were acting as assistants. It was in order to secure for these some means of support during the continuance of their school duties, and thus prevent them from giving up the occupation of teaching for which they showed promise, that the following regulations were adopted. It was laid down that, in any school under inspection, which was properly supplied with books and apparatus, and had a competent Teacher, these young assistants, if thirteen years of age, might, after passing a satisfactory examination before an Inspector, be appointed Pupil Teachers. The number in any one school was not to exceed one to every twenty-five pupils ordinarily attending. They were to be apprenticed for five years, during which time they were to assist in the school; and the Master was to give them instruction daily for at least an hour and a-half for five days in the week. At the end of each of the five years of apprenticeship, the Pupil Teacher was required to satisfy the Inspector in a course of study laid down for that purpose. It was proposed that at the termination of the five years a certificate should be issued, showing that the course had been completed. Objections, however, were found to the formal certificate, and the Education Department merely answered inquiries concerning the Pupil Teacher's previous history, to persons proposing to engage them. In Church of England Schools an examination was to be held in the Holy Scriptures, Liturgy, and Church Catechism, at which the parochial clergyman was to be invited to assist. In other schools, the state of the candidate's religious knowledge was to be certified by the managers.

Payments to Pupil Teachers and their Teachers.—The payments

to those Pupil Teachers who passed this annual examination were as follows:—

	£	s.
At the end of 1st year	10	0
2nd „	12	10
3rd „	15	0
4th „	17	10
5th „	20	0

The remuneration to the Teacher for instructing them was at the rate of 5*l.* per annum for one Pupil Teacher, 9*l.* for two, 12*l.* for three, and 3*l.* more for each additional one. A further gratuity was granted to the Master if his Pupil Teachers were skilfully trained in some mechanical arts suitable to a School of Industry, and to the Mistress if her Pupil Teachers were instructed in cutting out clothes, cooking, baking, washing, as well as in the more usual arts of sewing and knitting. These payments were made if the Inspector reported that the Pupil Teachers were in a satisfactory course of training for the management of a School of Industry, and the amounts granted varied according to the degree of skill and care displayed in each case.

Stipendiary Monitors.

Regulations and Payments.—These were to meet the case of schools where the Master had not sufficient ability to teach a Pupil Teacher the prescribed course, and were only contemplated as a provisional arrangement until the imperfectly qualified Teachers had been superseded by duly-qualified trained Masters. The appointment was for four, instead of for five years; and the instruction given by the Teacher to the Monitor was much more elementary in its character than that given to the Pupil Teachers.

The payments to the Monitor were 5*l.* for the first year, 7*l.* 10*s.* for the second, 10*l.* for the third, and 12*l.* 10*s.* for the fourth. The grants to the Master were 2*l.* 10*s.*, for one Monitor, 4*l.* for two, 6*l.* for three, and 1*l.* 10*s.* for each additional one under his tuition.

Queen's Scholarships.—After the completion of the five years' apprenticeship, the Pupil Teacher might be examined before the Inspector and the Principal of a Training College under inspection, and if successful, receive an Exhibition, called a

Queen's Scholarship, whereby 20*l.* or 25*l.* was paid to one of these colleges to defray the expenses of his training as a Teacher. The course of study might continue for one, two, or three years, and certificates could be obtained at the end of each year entitling the holders, when they taught in Elementary Schools under inspection, to an annual allowance from the State, varying from 15*l.* to 30*l.* in the case of males, and from 10*l.* to 20*l.* in the case of females.

Pupil Teachers in Public Service—Not carried out.—To those Pupil Teachers who did not display the highest qualifications, and who consequently were not fit to enter the Training Colleges to be educated as Teachers, an expectation was held out that they might obtain employment in the public service. In 1852, however, this proposal was cancelled, as it was thought that such an arrangement 'might raise indefinite expectations, which practically it would be found difficult to fulfil, and might have a tendency to divert the attention of the Pupil Teachers from the main object for which grants of money in their behalf were made.'

Pensions to Teachers.—In the same Minute it was proposed to grant pensions to Teachers of inspected schools, though the details were not published until 1851, when they were laid down by the Minute of August 6.

Grants to Schools of Industry.—Grants were also to be made in aid of Day Schools of Industry under the following heads:—

1. School Field Gardens.
2. Workshops for Trades.
3. School Kitchens and Washhouses.

In most of these cases, which consisted of Ragged, Reformatory, Industrial, and other similar schools, the aid was in the shape of payment of part of the rent, of the cost of tools, additions to the Teacher's salary, and occasionally of building grants in lieu of rent.

Aid to Workhouse Schools—Kneller Hall.—The management of the grants first made by Parliament this year towards the salaries of Workhouse Teachers (*vide Workhouse Schools*) was also placed under the Committee of Council, and some regulations were published by that Department in the Minute of December 21, 1846. Included in this branch was the establishment of Kneller Hall Training Institution, for educating Teachers for Pauper Schools.

Certificates to Teachers untrained at Colleges.—It was found that the rule which gave certificate allowance only to those who had been trained at the Normal Colleges was somewhat hard upon existing schools whose Teachers had not had that advantage. After several memorials from influential persons interested in education had been forwarded to the Committee of Council, it was determined to frame regulations for the purpose of defining the conditions upon which Masters and Mistresses of schools under inspection, who had not passed through a course of training, might be admitted to an examination for the several classes of certificates, to correspond with and carry the same advantages as those which were granted to students in Normal Schools.

Aid in Books, &c.—Conditions.—In the following year (1847) a list of books, maps, and diagrams specially adapted for the use of Elementary Schools was compiled by the Committee of Council, and (by the Minute of December 18, 1847) grants were offered towards the purchase of articles selected from this list to an amount not exceeding two shillings per scholar; and to schools having Pupil Teachers not exceeding two shillings and sixpence per scholar ordinarily in attendance. The only condition was, that two-thirds of the value had to be subscribed by the promoters of the school.

Capitation Payments in Small Places.—In 1853 the Minute of April 2 offered Capitation grants towards the support of schools in the agricultural districts and in unincorporated towns with less than five thousand inhabitants. By this all schools admissible to receive the usual grants under Minutes of August and December 1846 were to receive aid towards the expenses of the preceding year, at the following rate, on all scholars who had attended on an average four days a week for forty-eight weeks:

Number of Scholars	Boys' School	Girls' School
	s. *d.*	*s.* *d.*
Under 50	6 0	5 0
Above 50 but under 100 . . .	5 0	4 0
Above 100	4 0	3 0

The conditions were, that the income in the preceding year from endowments, subscriptions, collections, and school pence should have been at least equal to 14*s.* per boy and 12*s.* per

girl, without including the value of the Teacher's house or the school buildings; that not less than 1*d.* nor more than 4*d.* per week should have been paid by the scholars, and that the school should have been kept by a Master or Mistress certificated under the Minutes of 1846. It was further required that seven-tenths at least of the whole income of the school should be applied to the salary of the Teachers, and that the necessary number of Pupil Teachers should be provided. In 1855 these facilities were extended to urban as well as rural districts.

Crisis produced by the Capitation Minutes.—The introduction of the Capitation Grant Minute provoked a considerable amount of attention and discussion, so much so that this period has been styled the Crisis of the Educational System. By many persons it was considered as a fatal error. Up to this time it was argued that the action of the Committee of Council had merely been to assist local efforts, and not to supersede them, in which direction it was feared this Minute would eventually lead. Dr. Temple, in an 'Oxford Essay' in 1856, states: 'Local exertions were made an absolute condition of all assistance. Promoters of education were made clearly to understand that the public money was never given to save their pockets, but to do something which they could not do.' Inasmuch, however, as the Capitation Minute was said to have saved not a few schools from bankruptcy, Dr. Temple considered that, 'it is a plain proof that the Committee of Council cannot continue to maintain its old policy much longer.' In small places particularly, the strain on the voluntary exertions of the benevolent in supporting schools under the Minutes of 1846 was very great, and it appeared probable that the whole system would break down. According to the authority above referred to, two-thirds of the Capitation grant went really to relieve the pockets of the subscribers to local schools. The extension of this system, it was feared, would throw the entire burden of education on the central revenue, with all the evils of a central administration. A number of influential persons, who considered that municipal funds alone should supply the deficiency of voluntary subscriptions, feared that any extension of Government assistance, on the principle accepted in the Capitation Minute, would retard the development of this system, and render its adoption more difficult day by day. However well grounded these fears may have been, the results of the recent Act must have finally dispelled them, by the adoption of a system of rating to supplement assistance from public taxation.

Capitation Payments to Mixed Schools—Half-time.—In 1854 Capitation Payments, at the scale above given for the Girls' Schools, were allowed to Mixed Schools under certificated Mistresses, in rural parishes having under six hundred inhabitants. As a means of encouraging the half-time system, it was also decided that 88 days' attendance in the year should be taken, instead of 176, as a condition of these payments; provided that a scheme was submitted to the Committee of Council, showing the way in which it was proposed that the time of the children on the alternate days was to be devoted to ordinary labour.

Endowed Schools.—Teachers of those Endowed Schools which were allowed to receive apprentices, were, by Minute of April 29, 1854, to be admitted to examination for certificates, provided that they had been in charge of such schools for a certain period. It was at the same time stated that Endowed Schools were not *ipso facto* excluded from augmentation grants, but only if the endowment was the sole source of income. If, in addition to the trust property, they were supported by the requisite amount of voluntary subscriptions, they were eligible to receive public assistance.

Infant Schools—Regulations for Aiding.—As a means of encouraging Infant Schools, another Minute was passed on April 29, 1854. The assistance offered by this Minute might be given in two ways, according to the qualification of the Teacher, namely—

1st. By the usual augmentation grant, if she held the first-class certificate of the special course prescribed for the training of Infant Teachers (see page 433).

2nd. By the capitation allowance under the Minute of April 2, 1853, with the addition of a fixed payment of 8*l.* if she held but a second-class certificate.

Evening Schools—Extended Aid.—The development of Evening Schools was considerably encouraged by the Minute of March 1, 1855. Under the system previously in force, great difficulty had been found in obtaining aid for evening teaching, except in large schools with two instructors, as Masters with Pupil Teachers were not allowed to have Evening Classes. Several slight modifications had been effected to encourage these schools, but in many places it was found that the rules could not be carried

KINDERGARTEN INFANT SCHOOL

(*See* page 113

out. It was accordingly decided that in such places sums varying from 5*l.* to 10*l.* should be paid to Teachers in Evening Schools, not otherwise receiving grants for education. The conditions were as follows:—

1. That the fees taken from the students equalled the grant.

2. That the Evening School was in connection with a Day School receiving public grants.

3. That the Teacher produced certificates of character, and was reported on favourably by the Inspector, as to his knowledge of the special requirements of the district, such as Navigation for seaports, Geology for mining districts, &c.

4. That the Teacher was, at the time of his or her appointment, between the ages of twenty and forty.

5. That the School was opened at least sixty times during the year.

6. That in Mixed Schools, a married instructor was appointed; in those for girls and women, a female instructor; and in those for boys and men, a male instructor.

Evening-school Teachers, after one year, could obtain, if they passed the registration examination, a Queen's Scholarship, to enable them to enter a Training College. After teaching an Evening Class for three years, they might be examined at once for a certificate of merit, and then, if they gave instruction in a regular Day School, they were eligible to earn augmentation grants in the ordinary way, just as if they had been trained at a Normal College.

Education Department Formed.—In 1856, by an order in Council, the education establishments attached to general public branches of the Government were united, and called the Education Department. This was placed under the Lord President of the Council, assisted by a member of the Privy Council, called the Vice-President of the Committee, Privy Council on Education. In this way the Education Establishment and the Science and Art Department were placed under one head, though each continued to conduct its own work as before. Besides these duties, it was ordered that this new Department should be charged—

1. With reporting on such questions concerning education as might be referred to it by the Charity Commissioners.

2. With inspecting Greenwich Hospital Schools, the Royal Dockyard Schools, and the Schools of the Royal Marines, and reporting thereon to the Admiralty.

3. With inspecting the Regimental Schools, and the Training Regimental Schools at Chelsea, and reporting thereon to the War Department. This Order in Council, however, has never been thoroughly carried out, even to the present day.

Reformatory Schools, &c.—In 1856 and 1857 the regulations for aiding in the spread of Reformatory, Industrial, and Ragged Schools were revised by the Committee of Council. The particulars will be found in the chapters on these Institutions which were at that time under the inspection of the Committee of Council.

Encouragement to Art Teaching.—The details of the arrangement by which Teachers obtained conditional augmentation allowances for holding Certificates of Drawing from the Science and Art Department were modified in 1856. This was mainly owing to the spread of Art Schools throughout the country, and the consequent facilities given for Pupil Teachers and Masters to attend them and obtain Art certificates. This subject is fully gone into in the chapters on the Art Schools and the Art Training College.

Alterations in Capitation Grants.—An important alteration was made in July 1857 in the Capitation payments, by the abolition of the condition that at least seven-tenths of the whole income of the schools, including the Capitation grants, should be applied to the salary of the Teacher and Assistant Teacher. A good deal of difficulty had been found by managers in carrying out this rule, and the Education Department resolved no longer to insist upon it. To discourage the appointment of indifferent Teachers at lower salaries, in order to have a larger sum for other expenses, it was directed that if the Inspector reported that properly qualified Teachers had not been provided, the whole amount of aid from the Committee of Council would be withdrawn.

Building Grants for Science and Art Rooms.—A Minute was passed on January 20, 1858, by which it was provided that in approving plans and awarding a grant for the erection or extension of school buildings, the area of rooms intended for special instruction in Drawing, Mechanics, Physics, Chemistry, Navigation, and Natural History, as well as that of rooms designed for Elementary Teaching of the common kind, would be taken into consideration.

Pupil Teachers Apprenticed at the Fourth Year.—In 1858 changes were made by Minute of July 26, with the view of inducing an increased number of persons to enter the profession of teaching. It was decided that young people who were sixteen years of age might be examined in the same standard as that required of Pupil Teachers at the end of the third year.

If successful in passing, they were to take rank at once as fourth-year Pupil Teachers, and be apprenticed for two years only. With such advantages held out, it was thought that many parents in a superior position would be induced to send their children at the age of sixteen, who would not have consented to their being apprenticed for five years at so early an age as thirteen.

Capitation Grants—Probationary Teachers—Scheduled Students—Night Schools.—By this same Minute, Mixed Schools were to be aided by Capitation grants, even in places with a population of more than six hundred. Regulations were also made to facilitate the employment of certificated Teachers in the schools of small rural parishes, by making grants of a stipend to 'probationary Teachers' and 'scheduled Students' in such schools. Night Schools, if organised according to Minute of March 1, 1855, were in future to be allowed to add the number of scholars who had attended them for fifty nights per annum to the number of day scholars, in calculating the amount of the Capitation grants. No scholar, however, was to be reckoned as belonging to both schools, nor was any one under twelve years of age allowed to be paid upon as a night scholar. Probationary Teachers were to be eligible to teach in the Evening Classes.

Alterations in 1859—Building Grants—Capitation Grants—Pupil Teachers.—Several important alterations were made in 1859, as follows:—

1. Building grants were in future to be at the rate of 4*s.* per square foot of superficial area, up to a maximum of 40*s.* per child. In the following year this was reduced to 2*s.* 6*d.*

2. 100*l.* was to be the maximum amount allowed for each Teacher's residence.

3. No grants were to be made for repairs or alterations.

4. The aid in the purchase of new floors and desks was reduced by one-half—that is, to but one-third on the total cost.

5. Capitation grants were extended to Scotland, though this

was suspended during the year ending March 31, 1861, and Capitation grants have never been made to Scotch Schools.

6. One Pupil Teacher only was to be allowed for every forty scholars ; and,

7. In no case were more than four Pupil Teachers to be apprenticed to the same Master or Mistress.

Causes which led to Revised Code.—No material changes were made in the regulations after this time, until the passing of the Revised Code in 1861. One of the main causes which led to this radical reform in the system of public aid to education was the enormous increase which had taken place in the cost of this branch of the public expenditure during the previous ten years. In that time it had multiplied six and a-half times, and its operations may be judged of from the following table :—

At the end of the year	I. Number of Certificated Teachers	II. Number of Assistant Teachers	III. Number of Pupil Teachers	IV. Capitation Grants allowed on number of Scholars
1849	681	...	3,580	...
1850	980	...	4,660	...
1851	1,173	...	5,607	...
1852	1,671	...	6,180	...
1853	2,297	95	6,912	...
1854	2,836	172	7,596	22,801
1855	3,432	221	8,524	36,929
1856	4,373	225	10,245	75,440
1857	5,166	244	12,222	151,242
1858	5,888	243	14,924	195,492
1859	6,878	295	15,224	247,691

I. II. and III. include Scotland, but IV. is confined to England and Wales.

Principles of Revised Code.—The Revised Code was first submitted to Parliament at the end of the session of 1861. It was based on the three principal recommendations of the Duke of Newcastle's Commission, which was appointed in 1858 to inquire into the state of Popular Education in England.

These were :—

1. That grants for Elementary Education should be expressly apportioned upon the examination of individual children.

2. That means should be taken for reaching more rapidly the places not previously aided with the money voted by Parliament.

3. That the administration of the grants should be simplified, 'not merely as regards the office work of clerks, but in the much larger and more important sense of withdrawing Her Majesty's

Government from direct financial interference between the Managers and Teachers of Schools.

Introduction of Revised Code.—After very much discussion and opposition, which led to several modifications being made in the scheme as at first proposed, the Revised Code was adopted by Minute of May 9, 1862, and came in force after June 30 of that year. From this date schools continued to be aided only provided they had certificated Teachers, and were required to maintain the same staff as before. Building grants were to be made at the rate of 2*s.* 6*d.* per square foot of superficial area, but in no case were they to exceed the local subscriptions collected within four miles from the site of the proposed school; nor was a larger sum than 65*l.* to be given towards any Teacher's residence.

Grants to Maintain Schools.

Regulations.—These were only to be made to schools meeting at least twice a day. They were divided into two classes:—

1st. A Capitation payment.

2nd. A payment on the results of examination.

The Capitation payment consists of an allowance:—

(*a.*) Of 4*s.* for each day pupil who has attended school four hundred times during the year.

(*b.*) Of 2*s.* 6*d.* for each evening scholar who has attended at least forty times in the year.

The result payments consist of an allowance:—

(*a.*) Of 8*s.* for those pupils in the Day Schools who are more than six years old, and 6*s.* 6*d.* for those under that age, who have attended two hundred meetings of the school.

(*b.*) Of 5*s.* for those in the Evening Classes who have attended twenty-four times, and who are over twelve years of age.

All the payments in this second category are conditional on success at an examination before the Inspector, in reading, writing, and arithmetic. Failure in any one of these subjects reduces the grant by one-third. The course of examination is divided into six standards. A pupil may be examined in any standard, provided he has belonged during the year to the corresponding class, or in some cases to a higher class; but he must not be presented a second time in the same as, or in a lower one than, that in which he has been previously successful. Grants are liable to be reduced, or withdrawn altogether, for various causes.

Pupil Teachers not required in Small Schools. — Under the new regulations, Pupil Teachers were not required in any schools with less than 90 scholars in average attendance. With 90 to 129 scholars one was required, and an additional one for every 40 scholars beyond that number.

Endowed Schools.—Aid was to be given to Endowed Schools, if the endowment did not exceed 30*s.* per scholar, and if in other points they fulfilled the ordinary conditions of aided schools.

Changes in Evening School Arrangements.—An important regulation, which has tended greatly to spread the number of Evening Schools under inspection, was introduced into the Code for 1865. By this the managers can apply to the Education Department for examination papers, and hold the examination themselves at any time of the year they may think proper to do so. The papers are sent in a sealed envelope, and when the exercises are worked, the managers transmit them to the Inspector, who reports in a similar manner to that adopted by the Science and Art Department in its Science and Drawing examinations.

The Conscience Clause.—Considerable difficulty had often been experienced in the case of small places unable to support more than one elementary place of instruction, on the question as to the religious teaching which should be inculcated in the one school. The Dissenters did not wish their children to be required to learn the Catechism, or to be instructed in the distinctive doctrines of the Established Church; but by the terms of the Trust Deeds of schools in connection with the National Society, such instruction was an indispensable portion of the day's lessons. To meet these objections, the Committee of Council introduced the Conscience Clause, founded on the 23 Vic. c. xi.; and first suggested by Sir James K. Shuttleworth for the Trust Deeds of Wesleyan Schools in December, 1847 (see Minutes of the Committee of Council, 1848-9), and adopted in the model deed for schools of that body. Its wording was as follows: 'The said Committee (that is, of the proposed school) shall be bound to make such orders as shall provide for admitting to the benefits of the school the children of parents not in communion with the *Church of England as by law established;* but such orders shall be confined to the exemption of such children, if their parents desire it, from attendance at the public worship, and from

instruction in the doctrine or formularies of the said *Church*, and shall not otherwise interfere with the religious teaching of the scholars, as fixed *by these presents*, and shall not authorise any other religious instruction to be given in the school.' The National Society declined to entertain the proposition that this should be inserted in the building deeds of National Schools under their influence, and considerable correspondence ensued in consequence. Even at the present time the Society makes no grants to schools adopting this clause.

Changes in 1867—Higher Instruction, &c.—Several additional arrangements were made by Minute of February 20, 1867, with the following objects:—

1. To relieve the proportionally larger expenses of small schools.

2. To encourage the presentation for examination of a greater number of scholars, and to secure that these should be sent up in standards better corresponding to their ages.

3. To encourage elementary instruction in subjects beyond those specified in the six standards.

4. To increase the ratio of Teachers to scholars, by requiring a greater number of apprentices, and thus not only to promote the above objects, but also—

5. For the purpose of providing a more adequate supply of candidates for training as Teachers.

Regulations.—These objects were sought to be effected by giving an additional grant to every School or School Department under its own Teacher, of 1*s.* 4*d.* for each pass, in reading, writing, and arithmetic, up to a maximum of 8*l.* The relief to the smaller schools consisted in this, that if the average number of scholars was less than sixty-five, this increased aid did not require an addition to the staff of Teachers. Further, grants were to be made to schools on account of each Pupil Teacher educated in them, and sent to a Training College to be brought up as a Teacher. These consisted of 10*l.* if the pupil obtained a first, and 5*l.* if he obtained a second class; and, besides this, a sum of 8*l.* or 5*l.*, according to the same candidate's place at the end of the first year's examination at the Training College.

Seventh Standard—Payments for.—In order to encourage elementary instruction beyond that specified in the six standards, the same Minute created what was called the seventh standard. By this, any of the pupils could be presented for examination

who were studying one or more subjects of secular instruction, beyond those included in the six standards. If they passed to the satisfaction of the Inspector in the sixth standard, besides undergoing an examination in the extra subjects, a payment of 8*s.* on their account was to be made to the school. This was liable to the usual deductions for failure in any one of the subjects. Pupils availing themselves of this opportunity were allowed to be examined twice in the highest standard.

Recent Changes but few.—Since this period, the regulations for granting assistance to Elementary Schools have changed but little. The Table given on the next page may be interesting as showing the growth and extension of the work of the Education Department from its creation to the present time.

Conclusion.—The foregoing remarks are not intended to form a complete summary of the regulations of the Education Department, but merely to give an outline, and some general idea of how the schools at present in connection with this Department have been affected by its rules, since the period when State aid to education was first introduced into this country.

6. STATISTICAL TABLE, SHOWING THE DEVELOPMENT OF STATE AID, &c. TO EDUCATION.

Year	Number of Schools Inspected	Number of Scholars in Average Attendance	Number of Certificated Teachers Employed	Number of Pupil Teachers	Amount spent in Building Grants	Expenditure from Parliamentary Vote	Amount of Voluntary Subscriptions	Amount of School-pence	Amount of Endowment and Income from Miscellaneous Sources
					£	£	£	£	£
1851	2,310	271,126	883	4,815	24,411	164,313	86,999	84,039	33,204
2	2,499	339,893	1,356	5,767	33,471	188,856	119,612	108,355	76,463
3	2,630	329,040	1,720	5,435	26,100	250,658	114,444	112,255	77,324
4	3,456	431,378	2,476	7,009	43,412	326,436	149,688	144,711	104,165
5	4,234	519,798	3,069	8,465	71,287	369,602	187,776	178,630	98,308
6	4,411	545,244	3,792	9,443	74,470	423,633	194,900	189,089	107,749
7	4,522	583,126	4,414	10,943	117,771	559,974	203,279	207,142	96,282
8	5,559	668,681	5,495	13,281	140,826	668,873	230,899	241,274	111,770
9	5,691	731,592	6,222	14,176	134,199	723,115	244,516	270,205	117,602
1860	6,495	837,162	7,249	14,949	117,103	724,403	281,055	312,935	129,213
1	6,813	877,579	8,069	15,498	99,506	813,441	289,635	333,821	144,926
2	6,750	909,922	8,452	14,881	63,988	774,743	291,478	338,234	157,945
3	7,011	938,616	9,481	13,849	41,156	721,391	294,552	360,172	156,098
4	7,239	947,863	10,193	11,712	28,305	655,041	319,748	382,110	156,181
5	7,770	1,026,748	11,266	11,383	18,882	636,810	356,810	424,546	154,722
6	8,648	1,112,364	12,613	11,519	24,741	685,201	401,399	476,353	129,628
7	8,168	1,055,489	11,871	10,955	21,040	622,730	369,254	449,035	160,927
8	9,239	1,214,527	13,387	13,187	26,020	680,429	451,745	515,000	113,683
1869	9,468	1,285,319	13,977	15,016	35,978	773,839	458,720	549,328	99,197
Total from 1839 to 1869 inclusive					1,694,841	11,022,742			

7. NATIONAL SCHOOLS.

Origin of the National Society, and its Object.—The title of 'National' was originally applied to those schools formed in connection with the National Society. This Society was started in the year 1811, its main object, as stated in the first Report published in 1812, being to carry out the principle, 'That the National Religion of the country should be made the foundation of national education, which should be the first and chief thing taught to the Poor, according to the excellent *Liturgy and Catechism* provided by our Church for that purpose.'

Rapid Spread of its Work—Dr. Bell's Madras System.—The National Society, under the energetic superintendence of Dr. Bell, and at first, perhaps, stimulated by the success of the British Society, whose principles were considered somewhat heterodox, made great strides in spreading its views all over the country. It based its method of teaching on what was called the Madras System of Education, a plan adopted with success by Dr. Bell in India, and one which was similar to the Lancasterian System, of instructing by Monitors. The rival claims of these two educationalists as to originality have often been fully argued, and will not therefore be touched upon here.

Details of the Madras System of Education.—It will perhaps be well, seeing there has been so much controversy on the subject, to give the details of the system as described by Dr. Bell himself in 1823, in a work he published for the use of the National Schools.

'SCHEME OF A SCHOOL ON THE MADRAS OR NATIONAL SYSTEM.

'1. The entire *Economy* of a Madras School is conducted by a single Master or Superintendent, *through the agency of the scholars themselves.* For this purpose,

'2. The school is arranged into forms or classes, each composed of members who have made a similar proficiency, and are occasionally paired off into tutors and pupils; the superior being tutors to the inferior boys.

'3. The scholar ever finds his level by a constant competition with his fellows, and rises and falls in his place in the class, and in the forms of the school, according to his relative proficiency.

'4. To each class is attached a Teacher, and, if numerous, an Assistant Teacher; who are perpetually present with their class, and are responsible for its order, behaviour, diligence, and improvement. In large schools an Usher or superior Teacher is set over every three or four classes, and a Head Usher over the whole.

'5. Monitors are appointed to the charge of the books, slates, pencils, paper, pens, ink, and of the various departments and offices of the school-room.

'6. In Charity, Free, or other Schools supported by endowment or voluntary contributions, there often presides over all, as in old times, a superintendent or chaplain, or one of the trustees, directors, or visitors, whose province is to inspect, regulate, and control the scholastic machine in all its departments. What goes before properly constitutes the Madras System of Education, or the machinery of the new school as founded on *Self-Tuition* or *Mutual Instruction*. What follows is for the purpose of ensuring accuracy and precision, and for checks and instruments of discipline.

'7. The daily lessons are marked in the Teachers' books, and registers are kept of admission and of the progress of each class, and of the relative and individual proficiency of each scholar.

'8. If any gross misdemeanour should occur, the accused is tried by a jury of his peers, and the sentence is inflicted, mitigated, or remitted, at the discretion of the Superintendent, Visitor, or Master. But when the laws of the school are duly administered, there will hardly ever be occasion for this instrument of discipline. Such, in brief, is the scheme of a Madras School, wherein the *system hinges entirely on the tuition by the scholars themselves*.'

Growth of the Society—First Work.—The movement of the National Society was well supported at its outset, the Archbishops, Bishops, and many influential persons at once being

enrolled as members, with the Prince-Regent as Patron. The first efforts of the Society were to form a Central School in London, where the Madras System might be fully carried out, and be seen in operation under the most favourable circumstances. This was commenced temporarily at 45 Holborn Hill with 100 children, and was shortly afterwards removed to the permanent premises, for 1,000 children, at Baldwin's Gardens.

System of Society to aid Localities, not itself to found Schools.—It was originally intended that when this one school was in successful working, a number of similar establishments in different parts of the Metropolis should be commenced by the Society, and remain under its management. This idea, however, was afterwards abandoned, as it was considered of greater advantage to aid localities by grants and annual donations, than for the Society in all cases to take the initiative, which would probably tend to prevent a full and healthy development of that local interest and supervision without which schools could not be expected to flourish.

Spread of Schools—Improvement in Buildings.—The spread of National Schools in the early years of the Society was very great. In 1815, no fewer than 564 were in active operation, containing over 100,000 scholars. A large number of these were instructed by Teachers who had been trained by the National Society, or rather, who had attended a course of instruction, and seen the Madras system in full operation, at the Central School in Baldwin's Gardens. During the same year a sum of no less than 4,460*l.* was granted by the Society in aid of the erection of 55 local schools. The style of school-house at this time, however, was not such as is seen at the present day. This may be judged of from the description given in 1816 of the Central School, which was stated to be 'perfectly plain,' and fitted up in the 'simplest manner, the walls lime-whited, and the *floor level*,' showing that nothing had hitherto been expended in ornament, extravagance, or luxury in connection with school premises.

Diocesan Branches of the Society.—An important means, adopted almost from the commencement of the Society, for the spread of its schools, was the formation, in every diocese, of a District Branch in connection with it. These Branches carried on the work by encouraging and stimulating local effort, and also by forming schools in the larger towns on the system of the Central

Schools in London. This was the more readily accomplished, owing to the Bench of Bishops being on the Committee of the Society, and taking great interest in its working. Through the action of the clergy in many of the parishes of their dioceses, an effective and complete organisation was begun, which worked energetically for many years.

Schools usually Free.—Nearly all the National Schools when first commenced were free. In a few cases, as, for example, in Exeter, a charge of one shilling a quarter was made; but this was quite exceptional, as the majority of them depended entirely on local subscriptions, and an occasional grant from the parent Society.

Information on Trust Deeds.—In consequence of the difficulty and legal expense experienced by many persons in the country concerning the proper arrangement of the Trust Deeds of Schools, they proposed to open the Society in 1816, published information on the subject, and, at the same time, drew up a table of specifications suitable for such buildings, which proved of great benefit to places where schools were about to be established.

Extent of Operations.—Grants, varying from 20*l.* to 300*l.*, continued to be made by the National Society towards the building of Local Schools, and up to the end of 1821 the sum thus expended amounted to more than 30,000*l.* In that year it was computed that from 1,700 to 1,800 National Schools, with 300,000 scholars, existed in the country, started mainly at the instigation of the Society, whose whole support during this time had depended entirely on private subscriptions.

Issue of First King's Letter.—In the year 1823, the novelty of the Society's operations having somewhat worn off, and the donations having accordingly decreased in proportion, the whole of the funds of the Society became exhausted. In this emergency King George IV. was appealed to, and he consented to issue a Royal letter, addressed, through the Archbishops, to the parochial clergy, directing them to promote contributions throughout their parishes in aid of the Society's funds. In this way over 27,000*l.* was raised, besides a great impetus being given in all parts towards the spread of schools, by the attention thus publicly drawn to educational matters. The greater part of this sum was gradually expended in aiding the erection of local school buildings, the Society acting from a conviction, as stated

in their Report for 1826, that the best way in which they could promote education was:—

1st. To maintain the Central School in a highly efficient state; and,

2nd. To make grants in aid of the erection of schools, based on similar principles, in different parts of the kingdom.

In the following year they accordingly granted no less than 5,766*l.* for this latter object, and it was found that the schools united to the Society had increased to 2,199, with 330,000 pupils under instruction.

Dr. Bell on Payments on Results.—An interesting fact concerning the question of the advisability of imposing school fees occurred about this time. It was ascertained that some of the schools had fallen into irregular and lax modes of teaching, were not as energetically conducted as was desirable, and had, in many particulars, departed from the original scheme of the National System, whereby a considerable falling off of the pupils had ensued. In consequence of this, a memorandum was sent out, drawn up by Dr. Bell, in which was laid down, among other things, the desirability of connecting the duty and interest of the Teachers by rendering their emoluments in some way or other dependent on the number and the general improvement and good conduct of the scholars. The Society became so impressed with the soundness of this policy that, in the following year, the Report recommended the institution of small weekly payments from the children, not only with this object, but also as a means of supporting the schools, and of inducing parents to send their children with greater regularity.

Removal to Westminster.—In 1832 the Central School was removed to the new site at Westminster, where it was continued for many years until finally given up.

Second King's Letter.—The proceeds of the subscriptions obtained in consequence of the first King's Letter having become exhausted, a second one was issued by King William IV., after an interval of ten years. By this means a sum of 23,500*l.* was raised, which was expended by the Society in the same manner as before. Shortly after this, the first Educational vote was made by Parliament, whereby 20,000*l.* was granted towards the erection of school-houses. This vote, which was continued for some years, was administered, as explained elsewhere, by the

Treasury in building grants to schools recommended by the National and the British and Foreign School Societies. The amounts thus granted by the State to National Schools in the undermentioned years were as follows :—

In 1834 . . .	£11,151	to 65	Schools.
1835 . . .	14,155	122	„
1836 . . .	16,778	225	„
1837 . . .	11,446	136	„
1838 . . .	16,592	159	„
Total . . .	£70,122	707	„

Evidence in Favour of Fees.—The Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on the state of education in 1834, contained valuable information on the working of National Schools. Several witnesses were examined as to their opinion of the desirability of charging a small weekly fee to the children for admission to the schools. From their answers, it appeared that all agreed as to its being advantageous, not only as a means of increasing the income, but also of inducing the parents to value the education given, and to insist on the children attending with greater regularity. The Rev. W. Johnson, superintendent of the National Society's Central School, stated that he did not believe that the small payment, even from the poorest children, was really a cause which prevented their attending, if they had the desire to do so. He said he had made careful inquiries in a school of 1,000 of the poorest children, and found that in one year they spent no less than 250*l.* on sweetmeats. It was evident that if they could get this sum from their parents for such a purpose, it was not too much to assert that they were in a position to pay 1*d.* per week for their education.

Grants towards Schools and Teachers' Houses.—For the next ten years (to 1846) the National Schools continued to increase in number, being assisted by building grants both from the State and also from the National Society. These grants were not confined to the building of school premises only, but were also made towards erecting the Teachers' residences. In cases of need, the Society made small supplemental grants towards defraying the annual expenses of existing schools. To meet this great outlay several special funds were raised during these years, including those resulting from the issue of several Royal Letters. The grants in 1844–5 from the Society alone amounted to 63,267*l.*

Travelling Organising Masters.—In order to secure an efficient and uniform mode of conducting the National Schools, and also to afford Teachers the advantage of the advice and experience of persons qualified to be useful in this respect, the National Society, about this time, appointed five organising Masters, whose duty it was to travel to the various schools and districts, and who thus assisted largely in the spread of the National Schools.

Deficiency in School Funds.—In 1845 the National Society reported that the one great difficulty which they found in all parts of the country was the obtaining of sufficient funds for the support of the schools. They hoped that increased resources would follow as the efficiency improved, and as the Teachers became better qualified. They gave it as their experience that in proportion as the qualifications of the Teachers improved, so the schools obtained better support, both from the poor, as shown by the children's payments, and from the rich, as indicated by the increased annual subscriptions.

Commencement of State Aid to Support Schools.—However true this opinion might be, it was nevertheless certain that the resources at the command of school managers continued, in the majority of cases, to be very much below what was required, and the regulation laid down in the Minutes of 1846, whereby the Committee of Council undertook to grant annual payments to all schools with certified Teachers, was a great relief and assistance to the National Schools throughout the country. In 1847, 351 received an annual grant, which amounted to 49,272*l.* Since that time, an increased number each year has received support from the State, and, as a consequence, they have to an extent ceased to be dependent on the National Society, and in but few cases now receive assistance from it. Those, however, which are in union with that body, and have obtained grants for Building or other purposes, continue to form a distinct class of schools as regards their religious teaching, which is, of course, conducted strictly on Church of England principles. In other respects, they are generally similar to the schools inspected by the Education Department.

Conditions of Grants from National Society.—The terms of connection with the Society, and on which alone these grants are now made, are at present as follows :—

1. That the children shall be instructed in the Holy Scriptures, the Liturgy, and Catechism of the Established Church.

2. That with respect to such instruction, the schools are to be subject to the superintendence of the parochial clergyman.

3. That the children are to be regularly assembled for the purpose of attending Divine Service in the Parish Church, or other place of worship under the Establishment, unless such reason be assigned for their non-attendance as is satisfactory to the managers of the school.

4. That the Masters and the Mistresses are to be members of the Church of England.

5. That a Report on the state and progress of the schools is to be made at Christmas in every year to the Diocesan Board, the District Society, or the National Society. The schools are also, with the consent of the managers, to be periodically inspected by persons appointed either by the Bishop of the Diocese, the National Society, or the Diocesan Board of Education.

6. That in case any difference should arise between the parochial clergy and the managers of the schools with reference to the preceding rules respecting the religious instruction of the scholars, or any regulation connected therewith, an appeal is to be made to the Bishop of the Diocese, whose decision is to be final.

The Conscience Clause.—The Society for a long time opposed the 'Conscience Clause' when introduced in 1860. This it did as the representative of the Church of England, and from the fact that it depended for support almost entirely on those who at the time had strong feelings against the clause being introduced into the trust deeds of National Schools. By carrying out the regulation involved in the 'Conscience Clause,' the Committee of Council directed that in small places where two schools would be unnecessary, a clause should be inserted in the trust deed of any proposed school seeking the aid of public funds, allowing parents to withdraw their children from the religious instruction if they thought proper to do so. The National Society objected to this, as opposed to their fundamental rules, and declined to assist by their private grants any school having this clause in its trust deed. Public feeling in this respect has fully borne out the action of the Education Department.

Building Grants still given by the Society.—The Building Grants

made to National Schools through the Society have continued up to the present day, and supplement the Government aid to those schools in connection with the Church of England which comply with the rules above given. In 1868-9, a sum of no less than 13,171*l.* was thus granted towards erecting 216 new schools, and enlarging 40 others.

Gradual Increase of National Schools.—For the last ten years, with the exception of the changes brought about by the Revised Code and other alterations in the Government regulations, the work of National Schools has continued without any important feature, and their number has gone on steadily and rapidly increasing. By the assistance of the local clergy of the Established Church, who have always been foremost in endeavours for improving the condition of the poor, schools have been started in the most remote and out-of-the-way parishes. This is so much the case, that although there are hundreds of thousands of children who are completely ignorant, yet parishes in England without some sort of school are scarce.

Great Results of the National Society's Work.—Since the year 1811, when the National Society commenced its labours, it has expended no less than 860,000*l.*, collected entirely from private sources, towards creating schools and Training Colleges having for their chief object the education of the poor on the principles of the Established Church. It would be difficult to trace the good results which must have been produced in this country by these operations, nor is it possible to estimate the benefits which the Society's actions have conferred on all classes of society. They have certainly left an indelible mark on the page of history, and influenced in the highest degree the welfare of the entire population of these islands.

8. BRITISH SCHOOLS.

British Schools first called Lancasterian Schools.—The British, or as they were originally called, the Lancasterian Schools, have had a great influence during the last 70 years in raising the state of education in the country among the poorer classes. Without entering into the disputed claims of Dr. Bell and Joseph Lancaster, as to who was the first to originate the peculiar system pursued at these schools, there can be no doubt but that by the energy of the latter a practical step of great importance was made towards developing a regular, efficient, and economical plan of teaching.

Religious Liberty a Fundamental Rule.—One essential and distinctive feature of British Schools, in addition to the special mode of teaching claimed to be originated by their founder, was that of their religious liberty. The fundamental rule has always been that the Sacred Scriptures, or extracts therefrom, should be read daily; that no catechism or other formulary peculiar to any religious denomination should be introduced or taught during the hours of instruction; and that every child attending the Day School should be at liberty to attend any Sabbath School or place of worship preferred by its parents.

British Schools not Confined to Dissenters.—These rules were for many years considered objectionable by a large number of well-meaning persons, and the clergy of the Church of England were so strongly opposed to them that, mainly by their influence, the National Society was brought into existence to establish schools in which the religious teaching was of a more strictly dogmatic character. In consequence of this an incorrect impression prevailed that the British Schools were almost entirely under the control of the Dissenters, whereas, as a matter of fact, on the Committees of management which have

been elected ever since the commencement of the Society members of the Church of England will be found in considerable numbers, and with them Dissenters of almost every denomination. Public opinion concerning religious teaching of children has of late undergone a change, resulting in the adoption, as the national system of education, of a plan nearly identical in its religious aspect with that on which the British Schools were first started, and which was then so fiercely attacked.

First Lancasterian School—Fees.—The first school commenced by Lancaster was in 1798 at his father's house in St. George's Fields, which stood nearly opposite the present Training College and Model Schools, into which this small beginning was destined eventually to grow. Lancaster seems to have had a remarkable aptitude for teaching, and in a very short time his school was full to overflowing. The fee he charged was about half that required at most other places, though it amounted to a considerable sum, viz. 1*l.* 1*s.* a year, of which about 6*s.* was to defray school expenses, books, &c. From the first, however, a large number of the pupils who were in needy circumstances appear to have been admitted free.

Increase in the School—Partial Abolition of Fees.—When the scholars numbered about one hundred, new premises were taken. A season of scarcity following shortly after this period, Lancaster opened the school to all without requiring the payment of any fee; and as a means of supporting it, he induced several persons to guarantee the payment for a certain number of children, at the rate of a guinea a head per annum. The Institution continued to enlarge, or, as Lancaster expressed it, the children 'came in for education like flocks of sheep,' until it became quite impossible for one teacher, however zealous, to instruct them. In consequence of this, in 1803 the new Monitorial System was adopted.

Principles of System.—The distinguishing features of this system, as described by Lancaster himself, were as follows:—

1. 'That by the system of order and rewards, together with the division of the school into classes and the assistance of Monitors, *one Master was able to conduct a school of one thousand children.*

2. 'That by printing a spelling-book, or any other lessons for reading, in a large type upon one side of the paper, and pasting

the sheets thus printed on pasteboard, they could, when suspended from a nail against the wall, be read by any number of children, a method whereby *one book served for a whole school instead of* for one child only.

3. 'That by the introduction of writing on slates, and one boy spelling to his whole class a certain word, the boys in the class could instantly write it, going on in this manner for an hour or more; thus boys could write and spell one hundred words in the course of a morning, *a method whereby five hundred boys could spell and write the same word at the same instant of time.*

4. 'An entire new method of instruction in arithmetic, wholly superseding the former method of setting sums in ciphering books, or using books for the four first rules; a plan whereby any child who could read might teach arithmetic with the utmost certainty.

5. 'The expense of education being reduced to a very trifling sum, so that schools for three hundred children could be supported at the rate of 7*s.* per annum for each child.

6. 'Though inculcating religious and moral principles, all controverted theological points were excluded, the Holy Scriptures being the only religious book taught in the schools.'

Abolition of Fees—Great Success of Schools.—Shortly after adopting this system the school doors were thrown open freely and gratuitously for all children, and so great was its success that visitors were attracted from all parts, noblemen, Royal dukes, and even the King himself became subscribers, and in every way in their power assisted the work. As the amounts received during this time did not more than cover the expenses entailed, Lancaster supported himself to a great extent by the sale of his books, which rapidly became popular.

Foolish Conduct of Lancaster Assistance from Fox and others.—Success to such an unlooked-for extent seems, however, to have somewhat unsettled the mind of the simple Quaker, who never was remarkable for possessing a large share of worldly wisdom. The rash expenses into which he now plunged, not for his own selfish gratification, but for the purpose of carrying out what he considered the plan best adapted to develope his school system, not only ruined him, but even endangered the very existence of the work he had so well commenced. In addition to these troubles, party feeling, and the opposition of those who did not agree with his views, chiefly concerning the religious teaching,

tended to weaken his cause so much that at one time it seemed highly probable the career of the founder of the schools would be cut short by his incarceration in a debtor's prison. At this juncture, in 1808, Joseph Fox stepped forward, and, by advancing 2,000*l.*, and by rendering himself liable for considerably more, was instrumental in having the whole of Lancaster's affairs handed over to trustees, and, shortly after, in starting the association entitled 'The Royal Lancasterian Institution' for promoting the education of the children of the poor.

Travels of Lancaster.—From 1807 to 1810 Lancaster continued to teach in the Borough Road, and also to travel from place to place spreading a knowledge of his scheme, and awakening people to a sense of the deficient state of education then existing in the country. In 1807 he travelled 710 miles (a considerable distance in those days), and started 8 schools, having 1,500 pupils. In 1808 he journeyed 1,028 miles, starting 22 schools, with 3,650 pupils; and in 1809, 1,324 miles, starting 15 schools, with 6,150 pupils. The year 1810 he seems to have devoted almost entirely to travelling, and explaining his system in various districts, leaving the Borough Road School to be conducted by his assistants. No fewer than 50 new schools were commenced, with 14,200 pupils, Lancaster himself having travelled during the year 3,775 miles. In 1811 he visited Ireland and other places. This work he continued until 1813, the number of schools considerably increasing, though his mode of travelling was sometimes peculiar, and his general conduct at the towns in which he lectured was frequently extravagant and eccentric.

British and Foreign School Society.—On May 21, 1814, the name of the Society was changed into that of the 'British and Foreign School Society,' which it has retained ever since.

Main Objects of the Society.—The two main objects which the founders of the Society had in view were, as stated in the Report for 1813,

1st.—To offer a practical example in the Borough Road Schools of the benefits resulting from Lancaster's plan of education when applied on a very extended scale.

2nd.—To train up and to maintain a sufficient number of young persons of both sexes of promising abilities, and to qualify them to undertake the charge of schools in different parts of the

country of a similar character to the model one in the Borough Road.

Rules—Lancaster's Position—He Resigns and Leaves England.—At this period it was necessary to lay down more clearly the rules of the Society, and a code was accordingly drawn up in which Lancaster's duties also were defined. He was appointed superintendent of the Borough Road establishment, under a Committee of the trustees. This arrangement necessarily put him in a very different position to that which he had hitherto enjoyed, but his lavish expenditure had rendered some such step absolutely necessary. The change, however, did not long suit him, and he consequently resigned in 1814, and at that time altogether ceased his connection with the Society he had largely been the means of creating. After a series of misfortunes, brought on chiefly perhaps by his eccentric disposition, he sailed for America in 1818, leaving behind him an imperishable record of his twenty years' labours, blemished only by his own want of common sense.

The Management of the Society.—The management of the British and Foreign School Society, or as it was also called in these early days, 'The Institution for Promoting the Education of the Labouring and Manufacturing Classes of Society, of every Religious Persuasion,' was vested in a Committee of forty-eight members, who were elected annually by the subscribers at the general meeting. This Committee, which is still appointed in the manner prescribed in the first rules, has absolute power over all the concerns of the Society.

Relation between Society and Schools.—Its action with schools which were to a certain extent in connection with it, was not in any way one of control. A condition was laid down by Rule IV. of the original Code, that all schools which had been supplied with Teachers at the expense of the Institution should be open to the children of parents of all religious denominations; that the lessons for reading should consist of extracts from the Holy Scriptures, and that no catechism or peculiar religious tenets should be taught, but that every child should be enjoined to attend regularly that section of worshippers of which his or her parents were members. This rule has in the majority of cases been observed, but it was impossible for the Committee to enforce compliance when a Teacher who had been trained by the Society

thought proper to accept a situation at a school not strictly complying with these conditions; and British Schoolmasters are occasionally found at strictly sectarian places of instruction.

Statistics of British Schools.—The number of schools under the British system, at this period, it is impossible to determine with exactness. A list of the chief ones, containing about 150, was published in 1813. Many others were known to be in active operation, though not in connection with the Parent Institution, and were consequently omitted from the above list. It was estimated that half of the pupils in these 150 schools were members of the Established Church. The amount of subscriptions to the Society during its early years shows fairly its progress; it was as follows:—

	£		£
1808 . . .	248	1812 . . .	2,732
1809 . . .	1,407	1813 . . .	2,522
1810 . . .	1,921	1814 . . .	2,697
1811 . . .	2,923		

Extension of British Schools.—The extension of the British School movement continued steadily during the next thirteen years, not only in England, but in all parts of the world. In 1817 there were 260 schools in England, and in 1827 the number had increased to about 400. All of these were in connection with the Parent Institution, whose work in preparing Teachers went on uniformly at a cost, including the Central Model School, of somewhat over 2,000*l.* a-year, which sum was entirely raised by private subscriptions.

Introduction of Weekly Payments from Pupils.—During the first years of the British and Foreign School Society, nearly all the British Schools were started on the free system, the example of Lancaster's Model School being followed. In 1816 a change in this respect took place, which is noted in the Report for that year, thus:—'The Committee have also with pleasure remarked, that in several places the plan of receiving small *weekly payments* from the parents for the instruction of their children has been successfully adopted.' The testimony of many of the schools, such as those of Horncastle, Sheffield, Shrewsbury, &c., goes to show that the attendance was thereby increased, and the discipline improved.

General Adoption of Fees.—From this period, the plan of charging a small fee grew into general use; but in the Central

Schools, in which were educated about 500 boys and 300 girls, it was not adopted until many years later. These Schools were the first work of Lancaster, and, as before stated, were expressly made into Free Schools by him in 1804, and consequently the Committee felt some little reluctance in effecting so important a change. In 1827, however, the Committee became fully convinced of the expediency of the alteration, and it was determined to charge a small fee of *2d.* a-week per head, or *4d.* a-week for three children from one family. The reasons urged were partly the low state of the funds, and also a conviction that the operation of the pay system was highly beneficial, as it gave the poor a more direct interest in the education of their children, induced them to value it, and was likely to ensure more regular attendance. In order that the step should occasion as little opposition as possible, a meeting of the parents was held to consider the subject, and they entirely agreed with the proposal. Experience soon fully proved the correctness of the views of the Committee, for in the first year no less than *220l.* was taken, and the attendance of the scholars increased ten per cent. In 1869 the receipts under this head amounted to *372l.*, viz.: *117l.* from the girls, and *255l.* from the boys.

Effect of Pestalozzian System.—In 1828 the general proficiency of the British Schools, more particularly of the Model Schools in the Borough Road, was reported as having been considerably raised by the success of the introduction of improvements on the Pestalozzian System.

Commencement of Public Building Grants.—In the year 1834 a new era may be said to have begun in the history of British Schools. The whole cost at this time fell on local private contributions, with the assistance sometimes of a small grant from the Parent Society. In most cases the main difficulty had been in obtaining the necessary premises, owing to the heavy and immediate outlay required for building. By the zealous efforts of Lord Brougham and others, a Parliamentary grant of *20,000l.* was made in this year, to aid in the building of schools. This money was to be expended by the Treasury, and only in localities applying through, and whose schools were to be in connection with, the British and Foreign School or the National School Societies.

Applications for Building Grants. The effect of this grant was, that memorials for building 211 schools were very shortly sent

to the Treasury by the two Societies. The localities thus applying undertook to subscribe no less than 29,383*l.*, in addition to the Government subsidy. The population of the 169 places whose applications the Treasury selected as worthy of consideration, amounted to 1,599,263, the number of pupils to be provided for 30,326; and the total cost 48,625*l.*, of which the amount asked for from the Treasury was 23,452*l.* During this year 32 British Schools received promises of grants, to the amount of 9,536*l.*, which was to be paid to the British and Foreign School Society on the completion of the buildings.

Continuation of State Aid in Building Grants.—In 1835 a second grant of 20,000*l.* was made by Parliament, and as a means of making a fair selection, preference was given to applications from those places where, by a small outlay of public money, a proportionably large number of scholars would be provided for. When this list was exhausted, priority was given to places whose voluntary efforts secured that the pupils in the proposed schools would be in the proportion of two to every 1*l.* asked for from Government. This mode of State assistance continued for six years, during which a sum of 120,000*l.* was granted in aid of school buildings. The amounts to each place were fixed in the manner above-mentioned, under the authority of Her Majesty's Treasury.

Inspection a Condition for State Aid.—In the year 1839 the control of the Government Grants for erecting school premises was transferred from the Treasury to the Committee of Council. One of the first conditions imposed by this new body was, that in all cases of grants the right of inspection by Government should be secured in perpetuity. It was also laid down, that in future applications for building grants would be received by the Committee of Council direct from the localities, and that such assistance would not, as before, be in all cases confined to schools in connection with the two Societies.

Discussion on Inspection of British Schools by the State.—The regulation which required permanent Government inspection, led to a long and sharp correspondence between the Education Department and the British and Foreign School Society, owing chiefly to the mode in which it was proposed to appoint the officers to perform this duty. The Society considered, that as the Inspectors were to be subject to the approval of, and liable to be removed, by the Archbishops, who were officers of the

National Society, the British Schools would be inspected by those who had a strong bias for the National System. This they feared would tend to damage their mode of teaching, and to lessen the influence of the Parent Society. It was consequently arranged by the Committee of Council, that copies of Inspection Reports concerning British Schools should be sent to the Society for its information, and also that Inspectors' suggestions for improvements should be communicated to the Society, in order that it might assist, if it thought proper, in recommending their adoption.

First Inspector's Report objected to Modified Government Arrangements.—In spite of this arrangement, the first Report on British Schools by Mr. Tremenheere was not approved of by the Society, who thought that it was written without due consideration for their experience, and the system which they upheld. They considered that it showed signs throughout of a bias in favour of the plan of the National Society. The consequence of this was, that the correspondence with the Education Department on the subject of Inspectors, which had commenced in 1839, was re-opened, and lasted until December 12, 1843. It was then settled that no Inspector should be appointed without the full concurrence of the Committee of the Society.

Government Inspection now Satisfactory to the Society.—Since this period, the Inspector difficulty seems to have disappeared, for in the Report for 1853 the Committee of the British and Foreign School Society makes the following remarks: 'The inspection of your Local Schools by the Committee of Council is increasingly approved and valued. Everywhere testimony is borne to the fairness and kind co-operation of Her Majesty's Inspectors; to their laborious discharge of the responsible duties devolved upon them, and to their consideration for the wishes of the local supporters of the Schools.' At the present time, by far the larger number of the British Schools are inspected, and receive Government Grants.

The Pupil Teacher System.—The Pupil Teacher system may be said to have grown out of the monitorial plan of Bell and Lancaster. It was first suggested about 1844, and is now adopted in nearly all the British Schools, which really, from an educational point of view, are identical with National, Wesleyan, and other Schools in connection with the Education Department. The

uniform requirements of State aid have thus to a considerable extent abolished the peculiar features of British Schools.

Religious Principles of British Schools now Acknowledged.—The chief principle on which they were formed, however, not only remains, but a more enlightened age has fully endorsed it, and decided that the promotion of the education of the labouring-classes of society of every religious persuasion must be 'with liberty of conscience, and the utter abolition of religious tests in connection with common day-school education.'

9. WESLEYAN SCHOOLS.

Wesleyans possess a Special System of Education.—The important religious body founded by John Wesley has a complete educational system of its own. The course of teaching is very similar to that pursued by the National and the British and Foreign School Societies, being equally influenced by the action of the Education Department. The Schools, however, must be classed in a separate category, and the work of the Wesleyan Methodists cannot but be regarded as having an important bearing on the subject of National Education.

Early Efforts of John Wesley.—In his very early days Wesley seems to have been strongly impressed with the necessity of establishing some means for improving the educational condition of the children of his followers. Even before he had absolutely seceded from the Established Church, his efforts in this direction had commenced. After his return from Georgia, in 1739, he built a School for the children of the Kingswood colliers. In 1748 he wrote (referring to the sadly immoral state of the few schools which then existed): 'At length I determined to have them (the children) taught in my own house, that they might have an opportunity of learning to read, write, and cast accounts (if no more), without being under the necessity of learning heathenism at the same time. After several unsuccessful trials, I found two such Schoolmasters as I wanted, men of honesty, and of sufficient knowledge, who had talents for and their hearts in the work. They have now under their care near sixty children. The parents of some pay for their schooling, but the greater part being very poor, do not, so that the expense is chiefly defrayed by voluntary contributions.'

Sunday Schools.—No systematic course of Secular teaching among the Wesleyans seems, however, to have been pursued for

nearly a century after this, with the exception of that provided to a very limited extent in Sunday Schools. To encourage the growth of these, a Society was formed in London, in 1798, for the purpose of promoting gratuitous education in Wesleyan Sabbath Schools.

First Steps of an Educational System.—The first movement towards supplying these educational wants was made in 1833, when the 'Annual Wesleyan Conference' recommended to the Society that Schools should be established wherever practicable. Three years later a Committee was appointed, and this Committee reported that there were then thirty-one Wesleyan Schools in existence. In the following year the Educational Committee was formed, and in 1840 the number of Schools had increased, chiefly by its endeavours, to 101, with 8,193 Scholars.

Formation of the Educational Committee.—This Committee is composed of fifteen Ministers and fifteen Laymen, with a Treasurer and two Secretaries, and is elected annually by the Conference, for the sole purpose of superintending all—Day, Evening, and Sunday Schools—existing in connection with the Wesleyan body. Up to the date of the formation of this Committee, the educational work of the various Circuits was left entirely to private energy, and the schools which it found in existence, and those also which it started in the first few years of its action, were nearly all carried on under the British System.

Outline of the General Scheme and Duties of the Committee.—In 1841 this General Committee drew up a systematic plan of education, to be adopted throughout the country, which plan was approved by the Conference, and is still in force. In accordance with its provisions, this Committee has a general supervision over Wesleyan Education—it connects and combines the whole of the school operations in their *aggregate character* for the purposes of public utility—it is the medium of communication on Educational questions with the Government—it promotes the formation of schools, and superintends the application of funds—and, in addition to this, it directs the training of Teachers, a subject which is more particularly considered in the Normal School section of this volume. Further than this, it collects information, and makes returns, which it presents to the Conference at their Annual Session. Such is the general plan of working which this body has adopted, and it may be affirmed,

without contradiction, that it exercises an immediate control and direction over a larger number of schools than any other *private* association.

General Principles.—The principles on which schools in connection with this body were at first carried on were briefly as follows :—

I. *As regards Religious Instruction.*—They were to be of a distinctively religious character. The Bible was to form the basis of instruction : half an hour, both morning and afternoon, being set apart each day for reading and explaining portions of it. The Catechism and Wesleyan Hymn Book were also to be used, and the school duties were to begin with Prayer; but parents wishing, from conscientious motives, to withdraw their children from the religious teaching, were allowed to do so. All the children were to attend some place of worship on Sunday ; and, unless objections were raised by the parent, every child was required to attend the Wesleyan Chapel.

II. *As regards the Government.*—Small details of management were to be left to each locality, but every individual school was to be avowedly and practically connected with Wesleyan Methodism. The teaching did not of necessity partake of an exclusively sectarian character, and children were admitted of any and every religious denomination. The Local Committee of Managers in each school were to include the Minister of the Circuit, and the officers were to be either members of the Wesleyan body, or at least worshippers in the Chapel.

III. *As regards the Support.*—The pecuniary support of each school was to be derived from the payments of the scholars, and from local sources.

IV. *As regards the Teachers.*—Each Teacher was to be in communion with the Wesleyan Methodist body, and had to pass an examination before the General Education Committee. Aptness for teaching is here specially considered ; and as the lowest qualification, even in 1841, it was required that all Teachers should be competent to give instruction in the essential doctrines of Christianity, in reading, writing, and the grammatical structure of the English language, in arithmetic and geography, and in the elements of sacred and general history. It was also provided that the chief Day Schools should be on the Circuit plans for regular periodical visitations, religious catechising, and other instruction by one of the Ministers of the Circuit.

Pecuniary Difficulties in Maintaining Schools—Extension of Operations.—Such was the Educational Scheme formed in 1841, and it is still strictly adhered to in most of its essential points. The great difficulty, however, experienced at that time in increasing the number of the schools, was one of a financial character, the amount derived from children's pence being of itself inadequate; and, without special effort, private subscriptions did not come in with sufficient rapidity. In 1843 several meetings were held in the Centenary Hall, London, in accordance with a resolution of the Conference, for the purpose of considering this pecuniary difficulty, and for adopting measures to aid 'in securing, as far as possible, the means of a Scriptural and decidedly Religious education, particularly to the children of the poorer classes.' It was then decided to establish two Week-day Schools wherever practicable, in each Circuit, one in the town, and the other in the suburban district, or any adjacent populous village. To carry this out, it was found to be essential for the General Committee to take steps to train Masters and Mistresses, and also to make Grants of money towards the outfit of schools with Books, School Apparatus, and Furniture. Further, it was determined that an efficient plan of inspection should be maintained, and a systematic correspondence kept up with the Managers of the Schools in each District.

Wesleyan Educational General Fund.—As a means to carry out this object, the 'Wesleyan Educational General Fund' was started. This fund was to be obtained by private subscription, and a certain proportion of the Chapel Funds, &c. was to be devoted to it. This last source of income was guaranteed for seven years from 1845. The special subscriptions and donations in that year amounted to about 20,000*l.*, which sum was appropriated to the foundation of the Normal School. The receipts from the Chapel Funds, &c. for the seven years somewhat exceeded 2,500*l.* per annum. The result of this effort was to increase the schools by about a hundred, providing for 20,000 additional children, besides the rebuilding and remodelling of many old and inferior School-houses. It was estimated that a total sum of at least 50,000*l.*, including private subscriptions and the Government Grants, was expended during this period on the building and furnishing of these schools.

Collective versus Monitorial System.—A report by the Rev. J. D. Morell, one of H. M.'s Inspectors, on the state of Wesleyan

Schools in 1847, contains information regarding the relative value of the collective method of teaching which was usually adopted in the Wesleyan Schools, as opposed to the Monitorial plan pursued at the British and other Schools. It is printed in the Blue Book of the Committee of Council for 1853. He describes it as follows:—'An enormous gallery gathered all the children together under the immediate eye of the Master, and there he pursued his arduous task from day to day, with the consciousness perpetually breaking in more clearly upon him, that however carefully or skilfully he might convey his instruction, half the Scholars at one end of the School or the other, must remain listless and mentally unemployed.' This method of teaching, or attempting to teach, so large a number of children together by one Master, was therefore clearly impracticable, though perhaps it was not more deficient than the Monitorial plan, which was in many respects equally objectionable. The changes effected by the Education Department in introducing the Pupil Teacher system, and in enabling the funds of the schools to support an efficient staff of teachers, tended in a few years to abolish the evils of these plans of instruction.

Fresh Mode of Raising Funds.—The mode of raising funds to support the Wesleyan Schools was altered after the first seven years. Since that period a special collection has been made annually in April throughout the entire connection. The Wesleyan Day Schools existing in 1854 were established at the following periods:—

Before 1810	7
1801 to 1811	4
1811 1821	17
1821 1831	17
1831 1841	62
1841 1851	239
Not stated	17
Total	363

The amount raised between 1840 and 1854 for educational purposes, and chiefly for building schools, was estimated at 207,000*l.*

School Fees.—In 1854 the subject of School Fees caused the Committee a good deal of anxiety. At that time a large number of the Teachers were not qualified to earn payments from the

Education Department, and their income consequently depended entirely on the school fees and the local subscriptions. Though the General Committee had always advocated the plan of children paying for their instruction, yet they did not contemplate that the Teacher, in order to add to his income, might be tempted to raise the payments to an extent beyond the reach of the working classes. As this occurred in several instances, the Committee ruled that there should be 'a general rate of charge fixed, not according to the resources of the middle classes or the poverty of the lowest class, but according to the ability of "the labouring poor"—of the working classes—in the neighbourhood, for whose children the schools were primarily designed.' It was also directed that special provision should be made where poverty prevented the payment of any fee, and that a higher payment should be exacted from those whose position enabled them to pay it.

Excellency of Wesleyan Schools.—In 1855, Mr. J. Bowstead, Her Majesty's Inspector, reported that 'Wesleyan Schools in the country make, upon the whole, a nearer approach to the excellences of their Metropolitan model than those of any other class subject to my inspection; and it has struck me, as a peculiar merit in the body by which they are promoted, that they not only make vast exertions to establish Schools, but take special care that the schools which they establish shall be good ones. There is no instance in my district of a Wesleyan School under inspection being taught by an untrained Teacher, and the great majority, both of the Masters and Mistresses, hold certificates of merit. It results naturally from this state of things, that the standard of efficiency is high upon the average, and the duties of the Inspector comparatively light and agreeable.'

End of Financial Difficulties.—The extension of the capitation grants to all parts of the country from the public funds, which was allowed by Minute of January 26, 1856, seems to have relieved the Wesleyan Schools from their pecuniary difficulties. In the report of the Committee for 1856, it is stated that 'the complaint of want of funds is rarely heard. . . It may, indeed, be said that this is so *without exception* whenever the school enjoys the advantage of having the active help and oversight of a Committee taking an interest in its success.' Mr. Arnold, in his Report for that year, when remarking on the interest shown by the Wesleyan ministers in their Schools, states, more par-

ticularly of South Staffordshire, 'I find that the Wesleyan minister attends as regularly as the parish clergyman in the National School.'

Evening Classes.—About 1859 a good deal of consideration was given to the formation of Evening Classes in connection with schools, caused by the issue of the Minute of the Committee of Council of July 26, 1858. The Wesleyan Schools' Committee urged the adoption of this means of improvement, as much as possible, for all those who had left the Day School for the ordinary duties of life.

Separate Girls' School Mixed Schools.—In 1860 the establishment of separate Girls' Schools seems to have given rise to a good deal of discussion. The Wesleyan Committee was of opinion that the mixed School of Girls and Boys in most places was the more practicable, as usually only two schools could be efficiently supported in the smaller places. They considered that when this was the case, a mixed Boys' and Girls' School and an Infant School should be formed; but that in the comparatively few places where there were the means of keeping three schools, with a Mistress and Master, as well as other assistance, it was clearly advantageous to establish separate schools.

Statistics.—In 1859 the Government Grants of all kinds for the education of the Wesleyans amounted to 35,883*l.*, the number of Teachers being 317, of Assistants, 25, and of Pupil Teachers, 767.

The Conscience Clause.—The regulation in the code of the Education Department, by which 'The Conscience Clause' was required to be inserted in all deeds for building schools aided by the public funds, was naturally hailed with satisfaction by the Wesleyan Conference, as legally confirming one of their own rules: namely, that Parents should, if they thought proper, withdraw their children from the religious teaching.

Progress during Twenty Years.—During the last twenty years, the progress of the Wesleyan Schools has been steady and uniform. The number of pupils attending them has been as follows:—

1852 . . .	39,216	1862 . . .	76,052
1854 . . .	42,085	1864 . . .	82,333
1856 . . .	47,143	1866 . . .	93,194
1858 . . .	55,685	1868 . . .	110,086
1860 . . .	68,605		

Importance of Religious Teaching.—The style of teaching has necessarily remained very similar to that pursued at all the other State-aided Schools, except, of course, as far as the religious instruction is concerned. The feeling of the Wesleyan Education Committee is very strong on this point, and although, as just stated, from the very first they adopted a conscience clause, or an arrangement which practically amounted to it, yet they did not disguise their conviction that religious instruction should form an integral part of any system of teaching, and should, in fact, be interwoven with what would be popularly termed 'Secular Education.'

Resolution on Sir J. Pakington's Bill.—In reference to the Educational Bill introduced by Sir J. Pakington in 1856, the Wesleyan Committee passed the following resolution: 'That, while it has ever been the fixed rule in Wesleyan Schools, during the teaching of the Catechism, to permit the absence of any child whose parents should object to his being taught such formulary, and to leave all children free to attend, on the Sabbath, whatever Sunday School and place of worship their parents may prefer, this Committee believes that the Wesleyan community will never consent that the teaching of religion itself in their schools shall be subject to restriction. Their experience shows that besides the Scripture lessons with which their schools daily open, and in which it is sought to make Divine truth intelligible to children of all capacities, an able Christian teacher will find throughout the day, when teaching Geography, History, Physical and Moral Science, and the knowledge of common things, frequent occasion to illustrate and enforce the truths of religion, and that religious teaching may be made to impart life and spirit to the whole process of education.'

Sunday Schools.—The Wesleyan Sunday Schools have been gradually increasing in number, though not to so great an extent as the Day Schools. This may be owing to the fact that twenty years ago the Sunday Schools, which formed almost the only means of instruction in many places, were, even at that time, teaching a very large proportion of the children who were ever likely to take advantage of them. In 1851, they numbered 4,275, with 82,804 teachers and 441,741 pupils; whilst in 1868, 5,240 schools were in operation, with 102,718 teachers and 582,020 pupils.

Evening Schools.—The attendance at the Evening Schools, a record of which was first published in 1859, in the returns of the Wesleyan Committee, appears to have slowly increased, but not at the rate which is to be expected when the new system of examination by local Committees has been in existence a few years longer. In 1859 there were 1,150 evening scholars, and in 1868 the number had increased to 4,435.

General Excellence of Wesleyan Schools.—Such are the existing Educational arrangements of the Wesleyans; and it must be acknowledged that, for efficient instruction and harmony in working, the schools under the management of that body are equal to those of any section of English Elementary Schools.

10. ROMAN CATHOLIC SCHOOLS.

Commencement of Roman Catholic Schools in England—Ancient Restrictions.—Roman Catholic Schools for the poorer classes have existed in this country for about fifty years. Until a priest was allowed to read mass publicly, those professing the Roman Catholic religion were placed by the laws under such stringent and unjust privations and penalties that it was impossible for any one openly to teach a child that faith, and much less to keep a Roman Catholic School. According to the 23 and 27 of Elizabeth, Roman Catholics were forbidden, under severe penalties, either to provide an education for their children at home, or to procure it for them in foreign lands. If any Roman Catholic should keep or maintain a Schoolmaster, he was to forfeit 10*l.* per month, and the Schoolmaster was to suffer imprisonment for one year; Roman Catholics directly or indirectly contributing to the maintenance of foreign Catholic seminaries, were liable to forfeit their lands and possessions, and be consigned to prison during the pleasure of the Sovereign; and no person professing that faith could send his child for education beyond the sea, without special licence, under forfeiture of one hundred pounds for every such offence.

Comparatively Modern Liberal Facilities for Schools.—These extreme and harsh penalties had not been in practical operation for many years before they were absolutely repealed. Full liberty of conscience, however, in the matter of schools, is comparatively recent, and may be said to date from the passing of the Emancipation Act in 1829. It was not until some sixteen years after the Government system of aid to schools had been granted to the Church of England and to the Dissenters, that equal assistance was provided for the education of the Roman Catholic poor.

Consequent Deficiency of Education.—Owing to these restrictions, the Roman Catholic children in the country were left almost totally unprovided for, except those who attended the schools of other denominations, and the few here and there who were enabled to receive the benefit of the priest's private instruction. The laws had been originally framed with the view of preventing the spread of Romish doctrines, and with the hope that by these means all children might be brought within the pale of the Church of England.

The Catholic Institute—Statistics.—Reliable statistics respecting Roman Catholic Schools do not exist previous to 1845. In that year the 'Catholic Institute,' a body formed in order to assist in promoting the education of the Roman Catholic poor, obtained returns of all the schools in existence in England and Wales. From these it appears there were about 220 schools, many, however, hardly meriting the title. The following memoranda appear in the returns alluded to: 'No regular School-rooms'—'Not adapted, being a mere cottage'—'No School; the Mistress teaches in her own house'—'School, a room 13 feet square in Master's house'—'Twenty children excluded (though only twenty in the School) for want of room'—'A dark, damp room under altar end of Chapel, and a rented room near, roof open, and not weather-proof'—'School in small room over a Stable'—'School inconvenient, being a loft over a Cooper's Workshop,' &c. &c. All were either hampered, or almost entirely crippled, for want of funds.

No Government Grants.—At this time no assistance was received towards the erection of Roman Catholic Schools from the Education Department, as, by the trust deeds required, it was found impossible by the Roman Catholics to accept the aid without sacrificing what they considered the fundamental principles of their teaching.

Catholic Poor-School Committee—Government Assistance.—A new era in the history of these schools began in 1847 by the formation of the 'Catholic Poor-School Committee.' This body was formed by the Roman Catholic Bishops in England and Wales in September 1847. They issued a pastoral letter, dissolving the 'Catholic Institute' previously referred to, and directing that all moneys, &c., standing to the credit of the Educational account of that society, should be transferred to the new Committee. This body at once became the representative of the

Roman Catholic Educational work in the country; and on the following December 18, 1847, the Committee of Council passed the Minute which was the first step towards the grant of Government assistance to these schools.

Conditions of aid.—This Minute contained the following provisions:—

1. That the Roman Catholic Poor-School Committee be the ordinary channel of communication with the Committee of Council on such general inquiries as may be necessary, on any Roman Catholic School applying for Government aid.

2. That Roman Catholic Schools receiving aid from the Parliamentary Grant be open to inspection, but that the Inspectors shall report respecting the secular instruction only.

3. That the Inspectors of such Schools be not appointed without the previous concurrence of the Roman Catholic Poor-School Committee.

4. That no gratuity, stipend, or augmentation of Salary be awarded to Schoolmasters or Assistant-teachers, who are in Holy Orders, but that the Education Department reserve to themselves the power of making an exception in the case of Training and Model Schools.

Annual Government Grants.—The annual payments to Roman Catholic Schools from the public funds were made, after this, according to the ordinary regulations of the Committee of Council.

Trust Deed.—A very lengthy correspondence, however, ensued, which continued until 1851, on the subject of the Trust deed, and as to the arrangements required to be entered into between the local Committee of a school, and the Education Department, previous to a Building Grant being made in aid of erecting a Roman Catholic School. The great difficulty was found to be in settling legally the exact sphere of action of the Managers of the School. The laws of the Roman Catholic Church required that the Bishops should, in all cases of dispute, be the ultimate court of appeal, whereas the Education Department preferred a method of arbitration by a lay umpire. The discussion was finally settled in the following manner. The Roman Catholic Priest of the district, acting under faculties from the Roman Catholic Bishop (so long as such faculties continued in force), had the management and superintendence of the religious instruction of the scholars, with power to use the

premises on Sundays for the purpose of such religious instruction exclusively. In other respects the management, including the selection, appointment, and dismissal of the Teachers, was vested in a Committee composed of a Priest and six Roman Catholic laymen; any vacancy occurring in this Committee was filled up by the remaining members, until the Bishop directed that the election should be by subscribers; after which, persons who contributed to the school funds were entitled to votes in proportion to the amount of their donations. No one, however, was to be allowed to have more than six votes. The Priest was the Chairman of the Committee, with a casting vote, and no persons could vote at any election, or be appointed to or continue a Master or Mistress in the school, or be employed therein in any capacity whatsoever, who was not a Roman Catholic. The Priest also had the power of suspending any Teacher from his office, and of excluding any book on religious grounds, provided that he presented a written statement before the Committee giving his reasons for so doing. Such suspension or exclusion was in force until the 'decision of superior ecclesiastical authority could, with due diligence be obtained, and when laid before the Committee in writing, under the hand of such superior ecclesiastic, was final and conclusive in the matter.' If the superior ecclesiastic authority directed that any Teacher should be dismissed, such direction or decision was to be considered as tantamount to a dismissal, and was to prevent the Teacher from having any further interest in his office under the deed.

Subsequent Harmony between Committee of Council and Roman Catholics.—The agreement on this deed, over which there was so much controversy, settled the position of Roman Catholic Schools in England, and from that time to this the Roman Catholic Poor-School Committee and the Education Department have worked in harmony. Building and Annual grants have been made, subject to the above regulations, indiscriminately to Roman Catholic and Protestant Schools.

Action of the Roman Catholic Poor-School Committee.—The Roman Catholic Poor-School Committee, besides its duties as correspondent with the Government on all Educational matters, assists largely in directly increasing the Roman Catholic Schools throughout the country. It votes money towards the building and support of schools, and in the first year of its existence it thus assisted 138 localities, at an expenditure of 4,942*l.* So

voluminous, indeed, did the correspondence become on the subject of the necessary conditions concerning its private grants, that the Committee established a sort of periodical on Educational matters called 'The Catholic School.'

Arrangements to improve School Organisation.—The Committee was early impressed with the conviction of the ignorance of the Teachers as to the most advantageous modes of school organisation, and the systematic arrangement of the instruction. With a view to improve this state of things, an organising Mistress was appointed in 1849, whose duty it was to visit different schools with the express object of improving the system and manner of instruction. The length of her visit, whether of three months or more, was left to her discretion.

Inspection—First Public Grants.—In the year 1849 a Government Inspector was appointed, and, for the first time in the history of Education in England, grants were made from the public funds in aid of Roman Catholic Schools. The sum thus expended in that year amounted to 97*l.* 10*s.* 9¼*d.*, being chiefly for the purchase of books. The public grants rapidly increased year by year, and in 1851 they reached nearly 5,000*l.* Assistance was also afforded by the Catholic Committee to the amount of some 4,000*l.* in addition to the above.

The Progress not equal to the Requirements.—In reviewing these results, the Committee in 1851 remarked very justly in their Report, that though the progress had been most satisfactory, they could not rest content with what had been attained, seeing that thousands of poor Roman Catholic children in some of the lowest portions of our large cities were growing up in complete ignorance.

Conditions of Aid to Schools from Poor-School Committee.—The conditions which usually are made in granting aid by the Catholic Poor-School Committee are as follows:—

1. The sanction of the Bishop of the diocese is indispensable, and the Clerical Nominee of the diocese is expected to know the peculiar features of the claim.

2. Two support-grants are not made in one year to the same school.

3. Before any second grant is made to a school, a voucher for the expenditure of the previous grant is in all cases required.

4. No Building Grants are payable until the promoters present

a certificate, stating that they have expended on the school two-thirds of the amount coming to them from other sources.

5. Grants are made subject to the state of the Committee's finances.

Building Grants—Second Inspector.—In 1851 the first Building Grant towards a Roman Catholic School was made by the Education Department, and the spread of schools was so considerable, that a second Roman Catholic Inspector was appointed in the following year.

School Books.—The efforts of the Committee were directed for some time to the selection of a series of School Books, in order to form the nucleus of a Roman Catholic Poor-School literature, and arrangements were made with the publishers to enable the schools to obtain them at the lowest possible cost.

Statistics.—According to the calculations of the Committee in 1851 it was estimated that there were 1,000,000 Roman Catholics in Great Britain. Of these it was computed that 160,000 were between the ages of 5 and 15, and that a large proportion were of the poorest class. Deducting the 35,000 which were calculated by the same authority to be at Roman Catholic Schools, it followed that at least 125,000 were being brought up, certainly without any knowledge of their own religion, and in all probability without any education at all.

Increased Efforts—Reformatories.—These facts, and the fear that all the street Arabs found idling about the large towns were to be placed by the Reformatory Act, then just passed, into some description of school (Protestant or otherwise), induced the Roman Catholic Committee to use every effort to increase the number of their own Institutions, and an additional 1,300*l.* was raised by the Society for this object in the following year. This fear, however, was allayed by the formation, two years later, of Roman Catholic Reformatory Schools, aided in a similar manner to the Protestant Schools, by grants from the public funds.

Public Building Grants not taken advantage of.—It is not a little remarkable that, although the rules for obtaining Building Grants for Roman Catholic Schools were approved by the Bishops and consequently sanctioned by the Committee, yet they were not, and even now are not, taken advantage of to the same extent as by Protestant denominations. This is alluded to in the Report of 1855, and the attention of Local Committees is drawn to the

fact in the Report for that year with a view of urging them to make use of the grants as much as possible.

Means to Increase Importance of Religious Teaching.—It was thought that the encouragement given by the State to Secular Instruction had a tendency to elevate it above the Religious portion of the training. To counteract this evil the Roman Catholic Poor-School Committee, whose endeavours were endorsed by the Council of Oscott, made every effort to organise a system of ecclesiastical inspection of schools. They proposed to appoint competent persons to examine the scholars in the religious part of their education in a formal and somewhat impressive manner. This endeavour was not at first successful, many difficulties arising to prevent its being carried into effect until the year 1856, when the first step was taken by several of the Roman Catholic clergy visiting the schools. Shortly after a systematic method of examination in religion was adopted, and prizes and medals, both in bronze and silver, were awarded to those who distinguished themselves.

Increase in State Aid.—In 1856 the schools inspected by the Education Department had increased to 430, with 42,558 children, 201 Teachers, and about 600 Pupil Teachers. The grants from the State amounted to 19,185*l.*, as compared with 7,559*l.* in 1852. In 1858 the increase in the grants was very great, the amount reaching 36,258*l.*, or 10,000*l.*, more than the previous year. At the same time Building Grants were also made to the amount of 4,378*l.*, or almost as much as had been granted in all the former years put together.

Statistics from Duke of Newcastle's Commission.—The information collected by the Duke of Newcastle's Commission in 1860 is important. It appears that at that time there were 85,866 Roman Catholic children in 743 schools in England and Wales, besides 8,413 in 96 Evening Schools. Of these more than half were in the two Counties of Lancashire and Middlesex. A large number of children, whose religion was unknown, were necessarily not included in these returns, and a proportion of 1 in 18 was accordingly claimed by the Roman Catholic Committee as belonging to their communion. These facts showed that not more than half of the Roman Catholic children were at the time nominally on the rolls of any school.

Effect of Revised Code.—The effect of the Revised Code on the

Roman Catholic Schools themselves does not appear to have been so disastrous as was at first anticipated. The grants in many cases were certainly reduced, but not materially. The Committee reported in 1865 that, 'The more specific examination, of not the higher classes only, but of all the children in the school, brought about by the alteration in the Code, was found to produce an improvement in the instruction of the pupils.' The worst effect, as will be seen in the account of the Normal Roman Catholic School, was manifested in the diminished supply of Pupil Teachers, an evil which seems to have been universally deplored.

Building Grants.—The Roman Catholic School Committee since that period has continued without any very important alteration in its system, the only remarkable feature being the gradual diminution of the applications for Committee of Council Building Grants, which were as follows, viz.—

	Schools	£	s.	d.		Schools	£	s.	d.
1858	10	10,369	15	5	1864	1	835	4	0
1859	8	6,986	0	0	1865	1	334	11	2
1860	7	4,100	0	0	1866	0	Nil.		
1861	10	5,065	8	0	1867	0	Nil.		
1862	2	340	10	0	1868	1	115	0	0
1863	1	475	0	0	1869	1	652	15	10

In other respects the number of schools and the amount of grants paid to them out of the public funds have increased, as may be seen from this table, which gives the whole grant to Roman Catholic Schools, under every head, in Great Britain, and the whole number of schools, that is, departments under separate Teachers.

	Schools	Grants £	s.	d.
1860	...	31,941	17	1
1864	...	28,781	0	4
1868	734	32,911	14	2
1869	773	36,950	9	6

Work of Roman Catholic Poor-School Committee.—To the energy of the Roman Catholic Poor-School Committee, assisted by the grants from the Education Department, must be attributed the rapid extension of the education of Roman Catholic children which has taken place in this country during the last quarter of a century.

Roman Catholic Opinion of Compulsion.—The feelings of this section of the community on the subject of compulsory educa-

tion are important, as showing what they hold to be essential if such a system were established. In its last Report the Committee states that if compulsion is introduced it considers that, as far as the Roman Catholics are concerned, the 'denominational system is an absolute right.' However much others may differ on this and other points concerning the religious teaching of schools, it is impossible to ignore the views of a body such as the Roman Catholic Poor-School Committee, which has done so much to raise the educational state of the poor belonging to its own communion.

11. CONGREGATIONAL SCHOOLS.

Congregationalists formerly connected with the British System.—The body of Dissenters called 'Congregationalists' for many years had no special system of education. The children of their poorer members were brought up almost entirely in schools connected with the British and Foreign School Society. Many of the schools in connection with Congregational Chapels are even now called 'British Schools,' and hence there is extreme difficulty in obtaining exact statistics as to the number strictly in connection with this particular body.

State Aid the Cause of the Separation.—The formation of a distinct and separate class of schools must be traced to the commencement of Government assistance to education. When this question was first mooted it met with numerous and influential opponents, both among Churchmen and Dissenters. Many argued that it would be detrimental to the cause, both of religious and civil liberty, for the public funds to be appropriated in any way for the aid of education, which was considered as specially the work of the various religious bodies. Difference of opinion on this point led to an unfortunate rupture in the British and Foreign School Society. The result was, that a large number of influential members, calling themselves Voluntaryists, set to work to establish the formation of schools apart from the general system of the British and Foreign School Society, the essential feature being absolute freedom from State interference and control.

Formation of Congregational Board of Education.—The educational movement in 1843, and the excitement caused by the unsuccessful attempt to pass Sir James Graham's Factory Bill, induced a large section of the Voluntaryists, in protection of their interests, to form the Congregational Board of Education.

This was done at the thirteenth annual assembly of the Congregational Union of England and Wales, a body, composed of Independent Ministers and others, which meets annually for conference, but which does not profess to exercise any control or authority over the Congregationalists.

Outline of Scheme.—The outline of the resolutions passed at this meeting on October 11, 1843, was as follows:

1. That each Congregational Church, having adequate resources, should support a Day School for boys, and another for girls. If the funds at the disposal of any church were insufficient, co-operation with other Nonconformists, or with liberal members of the Established Church, should be offered. To avoid delay, rooms in which Sunday Schools were held were to be used for week-day instruction.

2. That Ministers were to impress on all the importance of education, and themselves assist to the best of their ability in carrying out the work.

3. That assistance should be given to the British and Foreign School Society, more especially with a view to support its Normal and Model Schools.

4. That a Committee of General Education should be appointed to collect statistics, correspond on the subject of education generally with other bodies of Christians, and watch the progress of any educational measure introduced into Parliament.

Great Efforts to raise Funds for Education.—The General Committee lost no time in endeavouring to carry out its extensive programme. Communications were sent to all the churches of the connection, and strenuous efforts at once made to raise funds, both to aid the smaller church districts, and to give encouragement wherever it was most needed. These early movements of the Congregationalists were carried on almost entirely in union with the British and Foreign School Society, as up to the year 1843 that Society had not obtained Government assistance, though many individual British Schools had received Building Grants.

The Fundamental Principles of the Schools.—Two fundamental principles seemed at this time to have guided the Committee in their efforts—namely, that the schools should be free from anything approaching an exclusive and sectarian character,

and that they should be carried on entirely without the assistance or interference of Government.

Extent of Operations.— It was considered that a sum of 250,000*l.* would have to be raised in the first five years of the Committee's work in order to establish sufficient schools for the Congregational body. During the first two years about 100,000*l.* was subscribed, and out of this numerous grants were made to different parts of the country. The practical work effected during this same period is recorded in the second Report of the Board. It is there stated that 100 new school houses had been erected, and 47 old buildings adapted for school purposes, thereby providing for the accommodation of 25,552 children. This was done at a cost of 33,321*l.*, in addition to the annual aid granted in maintaining existing schools.

The Rules of the Board of Education.—The Rules of the Board of Education, which were carefully drawn up and printed in 1848, show perhaps in the best manner the main principles which governed this body. After premising that the Board was expressly constituted to promote popular education, partaking of a religious character, and under no circumstances receiving aid from public money, administered by Government, they stated that its chief objects were:

1. The establishment of Normal Schools.
2. The inspection of Day Schools in connection with the Congregational body.
3. The collection of statistics concerning Day, Sabbath, and Infant Congregational Schools.
4. The establishment of, or the occasional aiding of, existing schools by grants of money, books, or otherwise.
5. The recommendation of the most approved books for schools, and if practicable the compilation of such others as might from time to time be found to be desirable. The rules further stated, that while the Board was constituted in special connection with the Congregational body, it was willing to act in unison with all other Evangelical denominations, provided they rejected Government assistance, and were willing to co-operate in friendly emulation for the public welfare.

The Religious Instruction required to be Evangelical.—The religious education given in Congregational Schools was in all cases required to be conducted on Evangelical principles, but

neither the adherence to the use of any denominational formulary, nor the attendance at any particular place of worship, was enforced as a condition of admittance into them. At the same time it was directed that any Committee would not be acting otherwise than in conformity with the spirit of the rules of the Board if they admitted members of other denominations to share in either the support or management of their schools, and that schools thus managed or supported would be equally eligible for aid from the Congregational Board.

Opinions on Fees and Subscriptions.—At a meeting at Sheffield in 1849 one of the Board made some important remarks concerning its experience up to that time in conducting its system of education. From these it appears that the subject of the payment of fees by the parents, as well as that of the assistance of private liberality in the shape of subscriptions, had been anxiously considered. The Report states that 'one point of importance is, the desirability of endeavouring to make education more a matter of *self-support* and *less one of charity.* After giving some thought to the subject, the conviction of the Board is deepening, that education has been hitherto too much pauperised; that it has assumed too much of an eleemosynary character; and although it has not usually been given as a gratuity, yet that the demand made for weekly payment has been so far below its real value, that false ideas have been given, and a wrong estimate formed of its importance. That the effects of this have been to induce carelessness on the part of parents, to impose heavy burdens upon School Committees, to reduce the salaries of Teachers to the minimum point, to bring into disrepute the scholastic profession with those who would be its brightest ornaments, and to present the subject before the public mind in a mendicant aspect, as a thing always begging, and unable to pay its way.'

Proposed Improvements in Managing Fees and Subscriptions.—The Report suggested remedies for these evils, which unfortunately exist to a considerable degree even at the present time. It proposed—

1st. That subscriptions should be paid to the Central Board or to the General Committee, and not to individuals or to particular schools.

2nd. That although no doubt desirable that in particular cases of poverty education should be given for little or nothing,

rather than withheld for the nominal fee, yet as a rule payments from parents should be required of such an amount that they might to a greater extent measure the instruction thereby, and value it proportionately more.

Raising of the Children's Fees.—In the following year, in half of the old schools, the children's fees, which varied from 2*d.* to 9*d.* per week, were accordingly considerably raised, and in the new schools a still higher scale was adopted. The Board reported that they believed as many children had availed themselves of the advantages of the schools as would have done so had only the lower fees been demanded.

Apathy of Parents—Plan to Remove. One of the great difficulties in making the schools as successful as they might have been, arose from the apathy and indifference of parents, which led to irregular attendance, carelessness in the execution of home work by the children, and other drawbacks to efficiency. The Board felt this to be a great evil, and endeavoured in every way to evoke the parents' interest in their children's education. A plan which appears to have been adopted with success in some places, was that of having an annual meeting of the parents, at which five were elected to co-operate with the Committee in the management and superintendence of the schools.

Alteration in System of Teaching.—About the year 1850, the method of teaching underwent a gradual change; the monitorial system of Bell and Lancaster giving place to the more efficient teaching of Pupil Teachers. The Board sought to supersede the use of Monitors by the adoption of the Glasgow Training System, which devolved a large portion of the instruction on the principal Teacher.

Petition against State Aid.—A petition to the House of Commons was presented by Mr. John Bright in 1850 from the chief members of the Congregational Education Board, repeating their arguments in favour of the Voluntary System—strongly condemning the granting of public aid to schools—and urging the discontinuance of the Committee of Council on Education.

Salaries of Teachers.—The average annual salaries of the Schoolmasters in the Congregational Schools at this time, derived from fees and subscriptions, are given at 70*l.*; three of them reached 100*l.* and nine upwards of 80*l.*

Statistics of Schools from Census of 1851.—The Educational Census Reports for 1851 give some interesting information concerning

the state of Congregational Schools. There were then 453 belonging to this denomination, containing 50,186 children, 185 being still called 'British Schools.' The amount raised up to 1851 for educational purposes is given as 160,000*l.*, exclusive of the annual grants for maintenance. These statistics show that the Congregationalists had a larger number of schools in connection with them than any other Dissenting body. The dates at which these Congregational Schools were commenced, as far as was then known, were as follow :—

Before 1801	. . .	8 Schools.
1801 to 1811	. . .	9 „
1811 1821	. . .	12 „
1821 1831	. . .	21 „
1831 1841	. . .	95 „
1841 1851	. . .	269 „

Inspection.—A plan of inspection by one of the ministers of the communion was organised in 1854. The object of the visits of the clergyman appointed by the Board for this duty was partly to add to the funds of the Board, and where possible to see the parents and others interested in Voluntary Education, and thus to stimulate the respective congregations to exert themselves on its behalf.

Lord John Russell's Resolutions.—In 1856, the discussion in the House of Commons on Lord John Russell's resolutions on National Education, led to serious opposition on the part of the Congregationalists, who were more urgent than ever in protesting against State aid, and in advocating the Voluntary System, by which the people should of themselves provide adequate means of instruction for all classes. In the debate Sir James Graham took a prominent part, largely quoting from a pamphlet by the Rev. W. J. Unwin, M.A., 'Education the Work of the People,' of which he said—'A more able pamphlet than this I will undertake to say never issued from the press, and I am sure there could be none more worthy of our consideration.' This outcry was not diminished by the increase in the cost of the Committee of Council on Education, which had risen from 20,000*l.* in 1843 to 451,000*l.* in 1856.

Fear of Religious Education being Neglected.—The fear which was so strongly entertained by the Roman Catholics, that secular instruction was tending to displace that of a strictly religious character, seems also to have been felt by the Congre-

gationalists, who, in 1857, stated clearly that they would prefer anything rather than the substitution of a purely secular education, in the place of one founded on a religious basis.

Varying State of Efficiency in the Schools.—The mode of teaching pursued was very similar to, if not identical with, that adopted in most of the State-aided schools, though the Pupil Teachers' System, culminating in the Training College, was necessarily not so efficient as when public payments were made and regular inspection required. In some of the schools the teaching was excellent, but in others, particularly those with untrained Teachers, it was very inferior. The Congregational Inspector accounted for these latter by the inaction of many of the local Committees, and the employment, for economical reasons, of the Teacher in various duties in addition to his school work.

Revised Code Favourably Received.—The changes proposed by the Revised Code were favourably received by the Congregational body. They considered that although they did not fully agree with their own principles, yet they were at all events in the right direction, and likely to throw the support of schools more on the localities than on the public funds, and also to proportion the payments to the merits of each individual school.

Complete Change of System—State Aid Received.—The system of the Board continued in an uninterrupted course for some years, its prominent feature, that of refusing and protesting against all State aid, being steadily adhered to; though from the severe competition created by State-aided schools the difficulties of maintaining schools declining all such assistance were largely increased. In 1867, the constitution of the Board in relation to Government aid was altered. A Special General Meeting was held, and the following resolution was moved by Rev. G. Smith, D.D., and seconded by Edward Baines, Esq., M.P.: 'That it is expedient that the constitution of the Congregational Board of Education be altered, and that the rejection of aid from public money administered by Government for educational purposes be no longer indispensable to membership or participation in the benefits of the Institution. That to effect this object, the rules of the Society be altered in the following manner, viz., that the words "*and under no circumstances receiving aid from public money administered by Government*" shall be struck out from the first rule.' This resolution was carried by a decided majority,

and thenceforth the distinctive feature of the Congregational Educational Board ceased.

Slight Differences to other Schools as concerns State Aid.—Assistance was subsequently given from the Public Grants, not only for creating and supporting Congregational Schools, but also for their Normal School at Homerton, in the usual manner, and under the regular system pursued by the Education Department. The regulations as to Government inspection differ somewhat from those in force in other schools. Managers are not required to enter into an engagement 'that besides secular instruction, the Scriptures shall be read daily from the authorised version;' but the religious instruction and culture are committed entirely without any restriction to the Managers of each school.

Exact Number of Schools not Known.—The exact number of schools at present in connection with the Congregational Board it is difficult to determine. The reason of this is that although a friendly intercourse has in most cases been kept up between the Board and each individual school, which the annual meetings tend to cement, yet no direct authority has at any time been exercised by the Board over the schools to which it has supplied Teachers. Consequently it has not been easy to compile accurate statistics respecting them.

Important Practical Experience afforded by the Congregationalists.—The experiences of the Congregationalists in the matter of education are very instructive. Without doubt they commenced with the best intentions, and acted from a conviction that they were right in opposing State aid. It seems probable that the great success of a few individual schools, conducted by excellent Masters and Mistresses, in no small measure led them to suppose that the same success would follow all their efforts, and that gradually the masses might thus be educated without the aid of State bounty. As an experiment the movement has been eminently useful as showing, that however desirable it would be to carry out the Voluntary System, yet that for many years at any rate, and until the educational aspect of the country has altogether changed and the importance of instruction has become fully recognised, it will be absolutely necessary that a large portion of the cost of educating the poorer classes should come out of the Public Taxes.

12. THE JEWS' SCHOOLS.

Jews in Connection with Early English Education.—This country in the early days of its history owes no small debt of gratitude to the action of the Jewish community for promoting Education. Shortly after the Conquest there was a considerable immigration of Jews into England. Among these were many Rabbis, men of learning connected with the Synagogues, and Jewish Professors, who, according to Nicholas Carlisle, soon established schools in London, York, Lincoln, Lynn, Norwich, Oxford, Cambridge, and other large towns. To these Academies Christian youths were admitted. In consequence, however, of the cruel treatment to which Jews were subjected in subsequent periods, this work appears to have been completely arrested, and for many centuries schools conducted by them ceased to exist, nor would public feeling have tolerated their establishment.

Jewish Population.—Though Jews were expelled from the country on more than one occasion, their number always appears to have been considerable, and since liberty has been given to all to settle in these Islands, the population of Hebrew extraction, particularly in some of the larger towns, has been gradually increasing. At the present time it is estimated at 60,000, of whom probably two-thirds reside in London. That part of the metropolis in the vicinity of Houndsditch may be said to be peopled almost entirely by members of this persuasion, and the number is constantly increasing by the immigration of foreigners, chiefly from Germany, Holland, Russia, and Poland.

School Accommodation Considerable.—From these facts it is evident that considerable school accommodation is required for the children of this large section of the community. It is true that

some of these, and perhaps not a few, attend Christian Schools; but the nature of their religion is such that a distinctive teaching is almost indispensable for them, and the rich members of the body have not been behindhand in freely providing for the educational wants of their poor.

Schools in London and Provinces.—In London, the following are the chief Schools for Jewish children :—

The Jews' Free School, Bell Lane.
The Westminster Free School.
The Jews' Infant School, Spitalfields.
The West Metropolitan Schools.
The Stepney Jewish Schools.
The Borough Jewish Schools.
The Jews' Orphan Asylum.
The Jews' Hospital, Lower Norwood.

Throughout the provinces there are also numerous schools, as at Birmingham, Liverpool, Leeds, Manchester, Hull, and in most of the other large towns. In the less populous parts, and in agricultural districts, very few Jews are found, or not in such numbers as are sufficient to support independent schools of their own.

No General Board.—Although so large and important a work is being carried on by the Jewish people in this country for the improvement of their poor, and notwithstanding the Jews are proverbial for the way in which they combine and mutually assist each other, it is not a little remarkable that no General Educational Board has ever been established among them.

Want of such a Board.—The National Society, the British Society, the Congregationalists, the Wesleyans, and other bodies, have each a representative Board for educational purposes, and the benefits which have resulted therefrom are considerable. In the case of Jews' Schools, though most of them are individually excellent, yet, owing chiefly to this want there does not appear to be any co-operation between them. Thus the Infant Schools in Spitalfields, and the celebrated Free School in Bell Lane, do not act in any way in unison, although only a few yards apart. In fact, to a stranger it might appear that the two Institutions were almost purposely kept distinct, and that instead of the former being preparatory to the latter, they were conducted as if they had hardly an object in common.

Arrangements with the Committee of Council.—Most of the schools for Jews are under the inspection of the Educational Department of the Committee of Council, and receive the Government assistance in the usual manner. According to the regulations defining the conditions on which building grants from the public funds are made, and which were arranged conjointly by a committee of the Jews and the Educational Department, it was mutually agreed that the Government Inspector of Jewish Schools should be a layman, and that he should confine his reports to the secular instruction given therein.

Religious Instruction—Conscience Clause.—The religious instruction, which in those schools under the Education Department is, under a conscience clause, not compulsory on scholars whose parents do not profess the Jewish religion, is usually superintended by the Chief Rabbi. This functionary, however, holds no official connection with the School Committee, though he often voluntarily examines the children from time to time. Each of the Schools is, in all respects, both as regards religious and secular teaching, under its own Committee, which appoints and dismisses Teachers, and otherwise regulates the management of the School. The Committee, whose members must all be Jews, is elected annually for each individual school by those who subscribe towards the support of that particular Institution.

Importance of Hebrew.—The fundamental difference between a Jewish and a Christian School is, that, in the former, Hebrew constitutes an indispensable part of the instruction. This language is taught to all Jews in the school, even to the lowest, poorest, and most unpromising child who enters. In the Infant School, Spitalfields, about nine hours weekly are devoted to the study of Hebrew, and in the Free School, Bell Lane, no less than twelve. From a Christian point of view, this may be thought strange, particularly as many of the children are so deficient in their everyday language; and as a large proportion of them are foreigners—chiefly German, French, and Polish—it might be thought that instruction in these latter languages should occupy any spare time which could be found in preference to the dead language, Hebrew. Regarding it, however, in its true light, and taking into consideration its effect on the Jews, we must in justice acknowledge that it forms the most important part of their instruction. In truth, Hebrew to the

Jew is not a mere study of the language, but it is a necessary part of his religion. The Christian can pray in any language, but not so the strict Jew; he prays in Hebrew, and everything of a sacred character is associated in his mind with the language of his forefathers.

Course of Instruction in Hebrew.—In all the Jewish Schools, therefore, as soon as a child enters, instruction is given in the Hebrew alphabet, concurrently with the English, and the two languages are thus studied together. When sufficiently advanced, the scholars are obliged to commit to memory the Commandments and the Articles of Jewish Faith, in both languages. This is done word by word as it stands, and not as a translation. In the higher classes, for those who stay long enough, the verbatim translation is taken up, as also the reading of the Scriptures. Comparatively few attain this proficiency, but all who stay even a few months receive important instruction from a religious point of view.

Schools nearly all Confined to Jews.—A feature in which the Jews' Schools differ from most others is, that they are practically limited to members of their own religion. It is true that those schools which are under Government inspection are required to admit Christian or other children, should any such present themselves, but, as a matter of fact, few but Jews apply for admission. In November 1870, at the West Metropolitan School there were nine Christian boys and eleven Christian girls under instruction. These were the only cases in London at the time, and they were excluded from the religious and Hebrew instruction. Jews' Schools only exist in certain densely populated districts, where members of the Jewish persuasion are numerous; and consequently Jews are frequently found in Christian Schools.

Foreign Jews in England.—The rapid and ever-increasing immigration of foreign Jews causes considerable difficulty to the teachers in the schools. Very many of the children are Germans, unable to speak a word of English. In the Bell Lane School in April 1870, it was ascertained that out of some 1,500 children, nine only were wanted to make exactly twenty-five per cent. who had been born out of England. In addition to this, a very much larger number were of parents who had recently come to this country, and who were, consequently, but very slightly acquainted with the English language.

Division of Schools.—The Jews' Schools for the Poor may be divided into the Infant and the Day Schools, each of which will be specially considered.

The Jews' Infant Schools.

Where located.—There are two Institutions in London exclusively for infants, namely, that situated in Commercial Street, Spitalfields, and the Leman Street School, Whitechapel. These are both conducted on a similar plan; and a brief sketch of the first-named, which is the more important of the two, will therefore, perhaps, be the best means of explaining their general action.

The Spitalfields Infant School—History.—The Spitalfields School was opened in Houndsditch on September 14, 1841, for the reception of 200 infants, from the ages of two to six. On the very first morning, no fewer than 136 names were entered on the books. In 1853, it was enlarged to contain 70 more children; but this still not meeting the requirements, in 1856 a branch was established near the present site. Two years later, on July 23, 1858, the present premises having been erected for the purpose, were consecrated by the Chief Rabbi, and the opening ceremony was presided over by the late Earl of Carlisle.

Attendance—Fee—Clothes—Dinners.—The average daily attendance varies from 350 to 400, and a weekly fee of 1*d.* is charged to those who are able to pay it, but remitted in cases of distress. The amount raised by this means in 1869 was 74*l.* 9*s.* 11*d.* Clothes are not provided systematically, though by the generosity of ladies, occasional assistance in this way is given, but more in the shape of a private present to individual children. In the winter a daily dinner is supplied for the very poor, on payment of a $\frac{1}{2}d.$ each. Beyond these two occasional helps, no bribes are held out to the children or the parents. The days of attendance are Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday, from 9 to 12, and from 2 to 4; and on Friday and Sunday, from 9 to 12 only.

Course of Infant Instruction.—The course of instruction consists of Hebrew, English, Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, and Singing, with Needlework for the girls. The first subject, as previously stated, is taught to the youngest children, and before they leave,

at seven years of age, if they attend with fair regularity, all can read the language tolerably well. In English a similar result is obtained. The Writing, though superior to the Arithmetic, is hardly up to the standard of some Infant Schools. The most forward class in the establishment is taught by object-lessons of an elementary character, though the instruction here savours, perhaps, rather too much of the cramming system.

Classification might be improved.—A practical difficulty seems to exist in classifying the children according to their merits, attainments, or regularity of attendance. Each room is in fact a separate school, containing children in all stages of progress, and under instruction in all the subjects. The most backward in the School are not classed together, and gradually brought forward; nor does the Head Teacher in each room devote her attention to one particular subject at a time. In reality, she is the Head Mistress of a comparatively small school, with or without an assistant to undertake the classes. The adoption of this system readily accounts for the backwardness of the children in the more difficult subjects of Writing and Arithmetic, as it has a tendency to curtail the individual teaching of each child, particularly of those who are naturally slow or idle.

Training of Teachers.—The mode of training the Teachers is one which can hardly be said to be satisfactory. With the exception of the plan adopted at the Free School, chiefly for supplying that Institution with assistant instructors, and which is more fully mentioned hereafter, the Jews have no colleges of their own specially set apart for training Teachers. There are many circumstances which prevent them from attending, except partially, for individual lessons at any of the Institutions conducted by Christians. The result is, that considerable difficulty is, at times, experienced in obtaining suitable persons as teachers. Those who present themselves as candidates have usually been brought up in the School, and consequently have but little idea of teaching. If they are accepted, they have to qualify themselves chiefly in their own way, aided by the direction of the zealous Head Mistress, whose time, however, is amply occupied in other ways. In some instances, they have been sent to the Home and Colonial Training College for a few hours each day, the result of which has been most satisfactory in improving them in their teaching power.

School Premises.—The School premises are convenient, and most attractive-looking in every respect. The rooms are very lofty, and the walls are plainly but pleasantly coloured in distemper. The general appearance of the children is good, and they seem to be remarkably clean, care being taken to enforce upon them the necessity of attention to personal cleanliness. Children are constantly sent away who present themselves in a dirty and untidy condition. Their conduct, and the happy countenances which they have during school hours, indicate that the work imposed upon them is anything but irksome. The difference between this and some other Infant Schools, in these respects, is remarkable; showing that if the teachers are not trained as systematically as could be wished, they are nevertheless chosen with much discrimination as regards their ability to interest children.

Encouragement to Saving Pence.—A method of saving the farthings and pence, which would otherwise be wasted by the children in sweetmeats, has been in operation for some years. The children are encouraged to entrust to the Teacher's care any sum, however small, to be put by for them; and each child has a book in which the amounts thus deposited are entered. Twice a year the accumulations are distributed, with a small addition by way of interest, and they are usually laid out for the children's advantage in clothes and other useful articles. In this way, between sixty and seventy pounds are annually saved.

Inspection.—This School is now under Government inspection, and was visited this year by Mr. Arnold, though no grants have as yet been made to it from the public funds.

The Jews' Day Schools for Elder Children.

Most Important School.—As before stated, these exist in very many parts, but the most important School, and one which stands out conspicuously from among all others of a similar character, is the Jews' Free School, in Bell Lane.

History of Bell Lane School.—This Charity was founded in 1817, being engrafted on to the *Talmud Torah*, an ancient Foundation for instructing and clothing about twenty-one children. The Talmud Torah was probably the first Institution in this country having for its object the improvement of Jewish children; and

the Free School above referred to was one of the earliest organised schools established for them. At that time the education was conducted on the plan then extensively in vogue, namely the monitorial system of mutual instruction, established by Bell and Lancaster. The number of children was 270, and they were instructed by one Master in Reading and Writing, Hebrew and English, and in the rudiments of Arithmetic. The whole cost was borne by the leading men of the Jewish persuasion, and so much was it appreciated by the poor Jews in the neighbourhood that in three years larger premises were erected, for 600 boys and 300 girls, together with residences for Masters and Mistresses, playgrounds, &c.

Extension of the School.—For many years the school continued to flourish. In consequence of the improved method of teaching introduced by the employment of Pupil Teachers it was decided to give up the monitorial system, and to teach by Masters and Pupil Teachers only, and at the same time to make the curriculum of study more extensive. To effect this, two upper divisions were added to the School; in the first of which the standard in both Hebrew and English was considerably raised; and in the second, the course was of a character to fit the pupils to become teachers and efficiently to fill various offices connected with the Jewish Community.

Statistics.—In 1848, the premises were again enlarged, to contain 800 boys; and some years later, a further increase took place to 1,100; accommodation for 600 girls was also provided, thus making room for a total of 1,700 children. The number is still on the increase, as this year 1,600 boys and 1,000 girls are in attendance, and the growth of the School seems to be limited only by the size of the premises.

How Supported—Inspected by Government, but Receives no Aid.—The whole cost of the buildings, as well as the annual charges, are defrayed by private subscriptions and the interest from funded property. This last source of income is considerable, and within the last few months it has been increased by a legacy of 30,000*l.* from the late Treasurer, Mr. Alfred Davis. The School is inspected by the Committee of Council, and is reported on annually; but, according to the Regulations of that Department, the richness of the endowments precludes it from obtaining grants.

Clothes Provided.—By the generosity of members of the Rothschild family, every child at school, on a certain day in the spring of the year, is offered a suit of clothes. Some few are fairly well off, and do not take advantage of the offer, though, if a child presents himself to be measured, no questions are asked as to whether his parents are in circumstances to render such assistance necessary or not. Some request to have boots alone, as they are too proud to appear in the clothes; if this be the case, they are not allowed to have any portion of the gift, unless they undertake to wear the whole dress. Some receive two suits a year from the Talmud Torah Funds, and are accordingly called the Talmud Torah boys.

Fee.—The nominal fee is one penny per week for each child, which is paid by the greater number of the pupils. It is remitted, however, in cases of poverty.

Age of Admission—Reasons why Evaded.—The minimum age at which children are admitted, according to the strict rule, is six years, but this is very often disregarded. Parents are merely asked if their children are six years old, and, unless they say they are not, they are at once received. The reason that these young children are sent to this School, in preference to the Infant School close by, is in order that they may obtain the clothes, which, as before stated, are very rarely given at the latter place. This points strongly to the desirability of having some common Board of Managers for all the Jews' Schools. The presence of very young children in an elder school retards the progress of the others, and it would be far better if they were sent to a judiciously conducted Infant School.

Course Pursued at the School.—The plan adopted on a child's admission into the School is as follows. He is first received into the Great School-room, as it is called. Here he is examined, and, if found to be qualified, is at once placed in such a class as his attainments justify. If—as is the case with nine out of every ten—he be totally ignorant, he remains in the Great School-room, and commences a course of instruction in the rudiments of Hebrew, English, and Writing. Here he remains until qualified to pass into the first or lowest standard of the Education Department Code; and so he continues passing on to the second, third, and fourth standards. In each he is taught Reading and Writing in Hebrew and English, together with Arithmetic. In the fifth and sixth standards, History and Geography are added.

Highest Instruction.—The seventh standard is the highest to which the few who remain at school the longest can attain. This includes an elementary knowledge of Animal Physiology, and the laws of Health; a certain amount of Chemistry; some acquaintance with Social Science, Grammar, Mathematics, including Arithmetic to Proportion, Algebra to Simple Equations, the first book of Euclid, Hebrew Grammar, and translations from Hebrew into English. Those who really go through the instruction of this class have an education superior to that given in many schools with considerably higher pretensions.

Effect of Regularity of Attendance.—This upper division, or the seventh standard, consists of about seventy children, varying in age from eleven to fifteen. It affords a good example of the satisfactory results which can be obtained by good instruction, when the attendance of the pupils is regular. No fewer than ten of those who happened to be present on the 28th of June of this year (1870) were under eleven years of age, and yet were competent to be members of this class. Eight of them had commenced in the 'Great School-room,' which, as before stated, implies complete ignorance on entering the School.

Fund for Ornamenting the Class-rooms.—The Teacher of this class, with a view to encourage frugal habits, has established a fund, to which each boy contributes one halfpenny a week for purchasing flowers, maps, and ornaments for the room. Any surplus is expended in a trip either to the Zoological Gardens or elsewhere.

Girls' Instruction.—The education of the girls is very similar to that of the boys, and includes nearly the same amount of Hebrew. They have of course the addition of instruction in needlework, but the seventh standard is not attempted, though History, Geography, and Grammar are introduced into the fifth and sixth standards.

The Effect of Irregular and Short Attendance.—A large number of the children remain only a few months in the School, which causes much annoyance and anxiety to the Head Master. It is an evil experienced at all Elementary Schools. A certain amount of information is necessarily imparted to the pupils even during their short stay, but the results attained in the seventh standard class show what could be done for most children by eleven years of age, if by some means they could only be retained in regular attendance for three or four years.

Lending Library.—An excellent lending library of books of reference is connected with the School, as well as a select collection of valuable works for the use of the Teachers. This has been to a great extent formed by the liberality of the late Mr. Davis.

Summer Open-air Class-rooms.—The School premises, though very spacious, appear hardly large enough for the daily increasing number of children. An excellent plan has been adopted both in the Girls' and Boys' Schools for holding classes in the covered playgrounds during the summer months. This reduces the number remaining in the School-rooms, and ensures proper ventilation.

Teaching Staff.—The teaching power is as follows. In the Boys' School the staff consists of one Head Master with fourteen Assistant Teachers and twelve Pupil Teachers. Of the Assistant Teachers ten are Graduates or Undergraduates of the University of London, and three hold certificates of merit under the Committee of Council. In the Girls' School there is a Head Mistress, who has under her one principal and eleven ordinary Assistant Teachers (of whom two hold certificates of merit), and twelve Pupil Teachers.

Training of Teachers.—In addition to performing the duties of Head Master, Mr. Angel trains the Pupil Teachers and those who afterwards assist in the School. In this way the present staff has been created; for all, or nearly all, have been brought up in Bell Lane, and not a few made their first acquaintance with the Institution in the Great School-room. Several hours each day after his regular duties, Mr. Angel devotes to this work, and although it is not intended to train Teachers for the country as in a regular Training School, it must be owned that as regards the Free School itself a most efficient body of Teachers has been produced. Provincial Schools requiring Teachers often apply to the Head Master, and in many cases he has been able to supply them with efficient Teachers trained in this way.

General Conclusion.—Such is the working of the Jews' Free School. It is a remarkable Institution in many ways, and from what has been said some will be inclined to doubt whether the instruction in Hebrew, though taking much time, really reduces the amount of learning in other subjects finally gained by the children during the same period of instruction.

Provincial Schools.—The other Jews' Schools which are spread over the country, though none of them has attained to the importance of the one just described, are nevertheless doing good work. Some of these are under the inspection of, and receive aid from, the Committee of Council; whilst others, as the Stepney and the Borough Schools, do not do so. The weekly fee at the last-named Institution varies, amounting in some cases to 2*s.* 6*d.* At Stepney it is fixed at 1*s.* a week, but in cases of distress, or of several children from one family, it is reduced.

Co-operation between Schools Necessary.—The only point in which an economy of time, and consequently an increased advantage to the pupils, might be obtained seems to be in a larger amount of co-operation between the different schools. In the case of two of the chief ones in London, namely the Free School in Bell Lane, and the Infant School in Spitalfields, it is obvious that they do not work as harmoniously as they should, or as it is to the interest of both to do. Children from two to three years of age and up to six, if properly trained at the Infant School, should at once enter the first or second standard in the Free School, and the latter should admit none under the maximum age of the Infant School.

General Want of a Central Education Board.—The only way in which such a system of mutual arrangements could be adopted, seems to be by the formation of a joint Committee for both, legislating for the two as branches of one Institution. Such a body, were it enlarged, might be so constituted as to embrace the whole country, in the same way that other bodies have long since arranged. As a ready method for obtaining Masters for different schools, and also for encouraging the spread of education among the Jews, such a system would be invaluable. It would seem that but little difficulty would be experienced in carrying out some such educational plan if supported by the leading members of the Jewish faith.

13. INFANT SCHOOLS.

Circumstances render Infant Schools Necessary and Useful.—This class of School is of a comparatively recent date, more particularly in England, and although, when well conducted, they are one of the most valuable branches of the educational system for the industrial classes, yet their development at the present time is not such as might be desired. As a general proposition it may be asserted that the imperfect condition of the homes of most of the Working Classes has given origin to these Schools. The best training for a child of the tender age of two years should be undoubtedly that of the mother, and where the home influence is good, and the education of the parent satisfactory, Institutions of the character now under notice would at best be unnecessary. Unfortunately, however, such a state of affairs is never likely to exist, and the Infant School is not only a useful preparation for the Advanced School, but is also an excellent means of profitably taking charge of children while their parents are engaged in their domestic and other duties.

Pestalozzi's System.—To Pestalozzi must be accorded the merit of being the first to organise the Infant School system of training, if not actually to originate it. His aim was to stimulate the pupil to use *his own efforts* in the acquisition of knowledge, while he was being trained in the use of his moral, intellectual, and physical faculties, and not merely instructed by the mechanical addition of so many facts and figures to his memory.

Dame School Opposition.—The want of Infant Schools has for a long time been evident from the number of Dame Schools which have for so many years existed in all parts of the country, nominally for educating, but really only for taking charge of the children while their parents were at work. The fees received by these 'Dames' amounted to 3*d.* or even 4*d.* a week for each

child, and the business was a source of profit to persons who could earn a livelihood in no other way. To their consequent opposition may be attributed to a considerable extent the comparative slowness of the development of the regular Infant School system, which at the present day is far from being perfect.

First Infant Schools.—The first description of Infant School of which there is any distinct record was established at Owen's Cotton Mills, at New Lanark, the principal object being to keep the little children from the danger of falling into the Mill stream while their parents and elder brethren were at work. Mr. Owen built a large room for them, allowed them a certain amount of food, and provided Teachers who gave them instruction and amusement. Mr. Buchanan shortly afterwards started the School at Brewer's Green, Westminster, which was the first in England, and according to the evidence of the Lord Chancellor before the House of Commons Committee in 1834, was the first complete Infant School in the World. His Lordship says: 'The first Infant School in this island, I believe in the World, was the one at Brewer's Green; R. Owen's and Mr. Fellenberg's, which gave the idea, having both been formed in connection with an establishment, manufacturing or agricultural, and so necessarily confined in their application; ours being every-day schools, where the children are neither fed nor in any way helped except by instruction and training.'

Exertions of Mr. Wilderspin.—A school was soon after this started at Spitalfields by Mr. Wilderspin, in which he himself taught, and a little later he travelled about the country lecturing on the advantages of Infant Schools. In these efforts he was assisted by the influence of both Lord Brougham and Lord Lansdowne from 1819 until 1836, when the Home and Colonial Infant School Society was formed.

Rapid Increase—Inefficient—Scarcity of Good Teachers.—From the year 1830 to 1835 the spread of Infant Schools was very rapid. The evidence, however, given by several persons before the Parliamentary Committee above referred to showed that they were not nearly as efficient as was desirable. This was attributable to the want of competent Teachers, a difficulty invariably met with in every stage of the Education Question. Mr. Dunn stated in his evidence: 'It is very easy to open an

Infant School, and to introduce certain amusements for the children, but it is not easy to obtain a Teacher who will laboriously instruct them.'

Examples of Bad Teaching.—The Rev. W. Johnson, the Superintendent of the National Society's School at Westminster, stated in 1834 that, in his opinion, the mode of instruction was so defective that he had seen nothing in Infant Schools to enable him to speak favourably of them. The teaching at one time seems to have been almost limited to requiring little children to learn chapters in the Bible by heart. In fact, it was once stated in public that every lesson should have either an immediate or indirect reference to the sacred volume. 'If,' says one, 'the lesson should be on the subject of a flower, the children should be taught to remember every passage in Scripture in which the word flower is mentioned. They should be reminded that "man cometh forth like a flower and is cut down,"' &c. The Bible, in fact, was in most Infant Schools the only class book, varied occasionally with Scripture alphabets. Some of these were of the most remarkable character, giving strings of Scripture names such as—

G, is for Goshen, a rich and good land,
H, is for Horeb, where Moses did stand ;
I, is for Italy, where Rome stands so fair,
J, is for Joppa, and Peter lodged there ;
K, is for Kadesh, where Miriam died,
L, is for Lebanon can't be denied.

These are from the first lessons, published about 1832.

The Prodigy or Hothouse System.—In some few schools another extreme was run into, and the programme of work laid out for little children was far too extensive. It included the Numeration Table, Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication, &c., Tables of Troy Weight, Avoirdupois, Apothecaries', and Wool Weight, &c. As all could not be brought up to this standard, a few of the quicker children, or rather infants, were often picked out and produced at a public examination, to the envy of their fellows and the astonishment and admiration of the visitors. These methods, producing what Mr. Fletcher pointedly called the 'prodigy system,' were forcibly pointed out by Mr. Horace Grant, Mr. Dunn, and others, who laid down that 'an Infant School should be the happy asylum of babes rescued by the hand of benevolence from penury, negligence, and vice. When such an Institu-

tion becomes an intellectual hothouse, it should be put down as a nuisance of the very worst description.'

Curious Mode of Teaching.—As an example of a mode of teaching which, though curious, certainly did not fall into either of the errors above referred to, and consequently had really better results, may be mentioned one pursued with infants at Islington about 1836. The Teacher found it impossible to interest the children for long together with the ordinary dry lesson books then in use, and in desperation he dressed up a broom with his wife's cap and apron, and danced it about the room. By such like devices he completely diverted their attention from the lesson and, after amusing them thus for a few minutes, was enabled to fix their thoughts with greater attention upon the subject of instruction.

Failure from Want of Teachers—Home and Colonial Society Formed.—The most earnest advocates of these Infant Schools, in spite of their rapid increase, still expressed themselves dissatisfied with the manner in which they were usually conducted and with their practical results. They regretted to find that the children were often not interested, and that 'sometimes they were constrained to hear of the failure of these important and highly useful Institutions.' Their immense influence for good was so apparent as to render the failures doubly unfortunate. The difficulty of obtaining suitable Teachers became greater almost day by day, whilst the want of success of so many schools, chiefly from a deficiency of proper instructors, tended to bring a good work into disrepute. Such being the case, Mr. Reynolds, Dr. Mayo, and other gentlemen who for some years had given their attention to the subject of Infant Schools, decided on starting an Institution for Training Teachers as the only way of really improving the Infant Schools throughout the country. Dr. Mayo and his friend Mr. Bridges subscribed 100*l.* each, and thus the Home and Colonial Infant School Society was formed, and opened June 1, 1836.

System of the Society.—To this Institution, fully described at page 113, under the management of Miss Mayo, the present state of the Infant Schools throughout the country is mainly due. The theory of their teaching was, to combine an education at once physical, intellectual, industrial, moral, and religious. The children were to be educated, not instructed. All children, it was urged,

are capable of being led, and with judicious and patient teaching lasting impressions for good may be made at the tenderest ages. This, however, can only be effected with duly qualified instructors. The Committee of this Society specially drew attention to this in their first Report, in which they stated that, 'few situations in life require so much discretion, so much energy, so much tenderness, so much self-control and love as that of a teacher of babes; that to guide and govern an Infant School well calls for wisdom to discern, versatility to modify, firmness to persevere, judgment to decide, and they may add that no uneducated or undisciplined mind can supply the incessant care, the watchful diligence, the unwearied patience necessary to manage young children.'

Large Number of Infant Schools.—The state of Infant Schools at the present day appears to be improving. The evidence from all parts, particularly from the populous districts of London, shows that wherever one is opened it is immediately taken advantage of. According to the Duke of Newcastle's Commission, there were in 1859 about 12·17 per cent. of the population under five years of age at some description of Infant School.

Usual Mode of Teaching.—The mode of teaching now employed in the best schools has been in operation since the scheme matured by the Home and Colonial Society has become regularly established. The children are usually divided into two classes, according to their age, The younger infants are taught to articulate plainly, to comprehend the meaning of pictures, to learn the letters of the alphabet and short syllables, and to go through a variety of elementary marching movements. In the higher class the events of Bible History are explained, and little stories are told them about animals, &c., the instruction being illustrated by attractive pictures. Elementary Arithmetic is also taught; and, in addition to this, they are employed in plaiting, tying knots, sewing, and other simple manual occupations. The Teacher is the important agent in carrying on the education; she stands before the children, 'constantly performing, as it were, in such manner and with such varieties of position, attitude, tone, gesture, method, and bearing, as shall best warm their minds to the reception of the new truths that are to be conveyed to them.'

Amount of Instruction Obtained by the Age of Seven.—By this means, without any intellectual strain or cramming, much is done

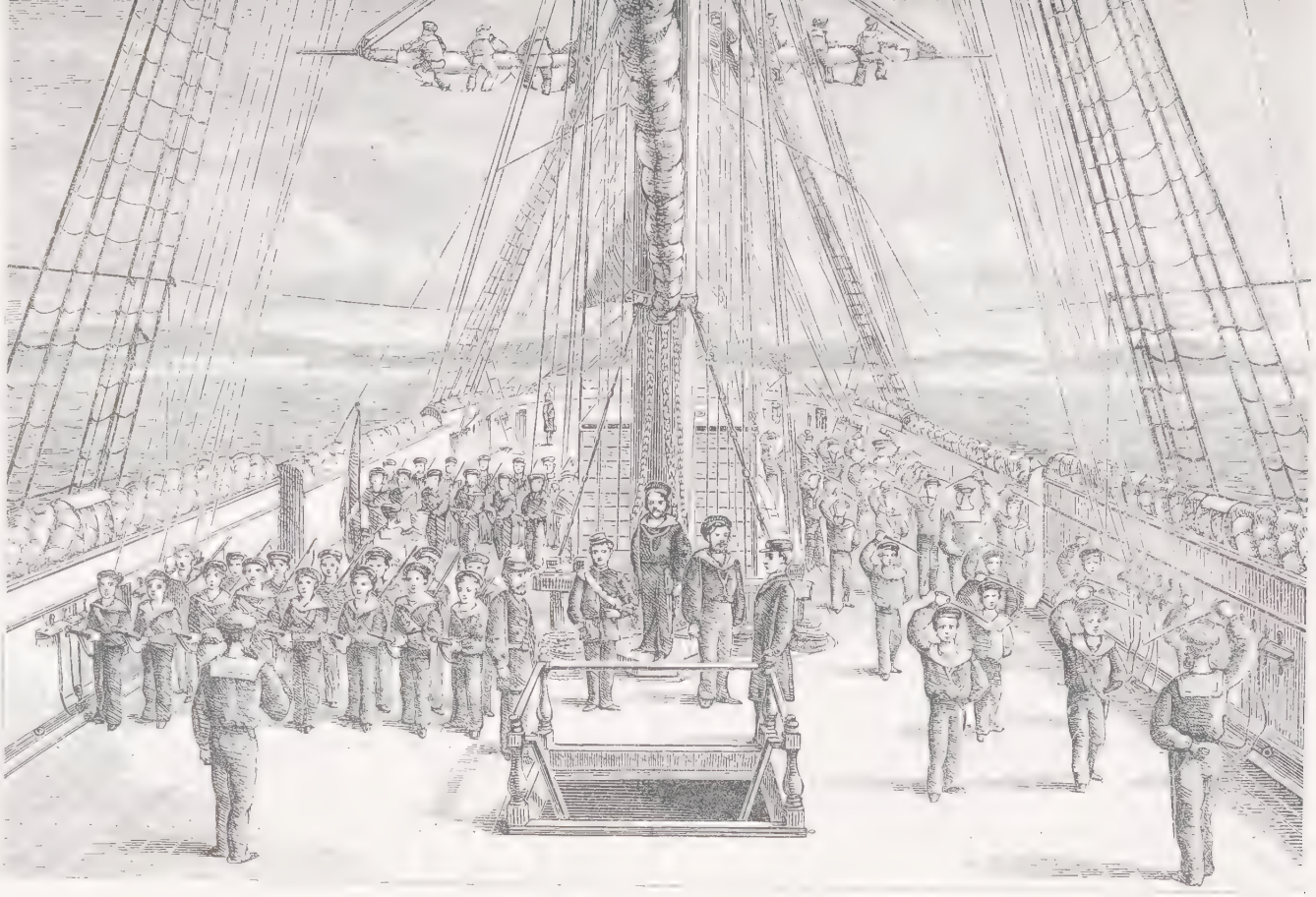
in the good schools. Children by seven years of age who have been regular in their attendance, can usually read a simple book, write fairly, and know the properties of numbers, besides possessing some general information as to objects of common utility. The advantage of this to the children of the poor, who are removed at so early an age to the field of labour, cannot be over-estimated; and its benefit to those who remain at school for a few years longer is equally important. It enables them to enter the Elementary School in the possession of information superior in many cases to that of children of ten or eleven, who have not had the advantage of the training of an Infant School.

Evidence by Mr. Shields on Results of Infant Schools.—The following Evidence by Mr. Shields, Head Master of the Peckham Birkbeck School, before the Duke of Newcastle's Commission to inquire into the State of Popular Education in England, bears directly on this subject.

Questions numbered 4,833, 4,834, 4,835, 4,838, 4,847:—'Supposing that you took a child seven years old, who had been well taught at an Infant School, within what time could you enable that child to read and write and cipher fairly, and have a fair knowledge of the principles of religion?'—'You mean a child who had attended regularly at an Infant School, and that it shall have been a well-conducted Infant School?'—'Certainly.'—'Does not it strike you that at the age of seven the child ought to come able to read, write, and cipher very respectably?'—'I should scarcely have thought that.'—'I should have expected it. Of course I do not mean that the child should be able to do all ciphering, nor to write a current hand, nor to read anything which is beyond the comprehension at that age.'—'You say that a child ought to be able to read and write and cipher fairly by the time that he leaves the Infant School?'—'Yes, unquestionably. Ciphering means very little more than the application of the four rules.'—'And the knowledge of their principles?'—'Yes; and that certainly may be taught in the Infant School with a skilful Teacher.'

Not Expensive to Maintain.—The necessary cost of supporting these Schools is less than that of most others, inasmuch as the greater number are superintended by females, for whom the work is specially adapted.

Home and Colonial Model Infant School.—The Model Infant School at the Home and Colonial Society's establishment in the



DRILL ON BOARD H.M. TRAINING SHIP 'IMPREGNABLE

(*See* page 183)

Gray's Inn Road might advantageously be taken as a standard for the establishment of similar schools in different parts of London and other large towns. The School has 160 children, paying *2d.* a week each, and is conducted by one Mistress and four Pupil Teachers. It is divided into two rooms; the one for the babies—varying in age from two to four—and the other for those whose ages do not exceed seven. The children are divided into three sections.

The First Section.—Into this, the youngest infants, aged from two to four years, are placed. The teaching includes religious and moral instruction, lessons on Form, Colour, Size and Weight; as also the names of common objects; the names of animals from pictures; instruction in numbers, chiefly by balls and other mechanical appliances, and the letters of the alphabet. The whole method is one free from any attempt at cram or other unnatural forcing, and its success chiefly depends on its power of interesting the children by pictures, models, &c. The lessons are so modified and varied, that they rarely last more than fifteen minutes each, and the attention and interest of the infants are thus not overtaxed. When they are able to tell the letters of the alphabet, the figures, and the names of most common objects, they are advanced to the next section.

The Second Section.—Here the instruction is somewhat higher, but of a very similar character, the uses of animals and common things being gradually introduced, such as are suitable to the capacities of the children, whose ages vary from four to six. The lessons are also lengthened to nearly half an hour.

The Third Section.—This is composed of children from six to seven years of age, the greater number of whom, if they have successfully passed through the other stages, have acquired a larger amount of practical knowledge than many children in National Schools who have attained the age of ten or eleven. They can usually read with tolerable fluency a simple book, and write from dictation, besides having a good knowledge of Scripture History, Elementary Natural History, learned from the instruction based on pictures of familiar animals, and the properties and uses of the common articles of manufacture.

Kinder Garten Exercises.—All the children in the second and third sections go through a course of the Kinder Garten Exercises. This is a most attractive mode of teaching, and takes place once a week. At page 40 an illustration has been given

of the School when assembled for these lessons. The instruction is divided into several different descriptions, according to the capacities of the children. To each member of one of the youngest classes a number of wooden cubic bricks are distributed, and the children are required to follow the example of the Teacher in building them up in various forms. By this method, coupled with oral instruction, they are taught in an interesting form the simple rules of Arithmetic, and their powers of observation become gradually developed. A more advanced class make patterns of various geometric forms with thin slips of wood, either copying from the Teacher, or, as they progress, inventing designs for themselves. Others make little baskets, &c., of various shapes, by means of short pieces of wood, which they cut to the required lengths, and fasten together by fixing them into soft peas. This last is a very popular lesson with the boys, obviously from the work requiring the use of a knife. Some of the girls make ornamental mats, &c., with slips of coloured paper, by interlacing them into geometrical patterns, a task requiring great neatness and some amount of ingenuity. This work is never given to the boys, owing to their fingers usually not being found sufficiently clean for the purpose. The highest work the boys attempt, and by far the most popular, is modelling in clay. It is astonishing how cleverly these little children sometimes model teapots, cups, and saucers, &c., and thus acquire habits of accuracy and a power of close attention to details. These Kinder Garten Exercises, whether considered as recreation from study, or as studies in themselves, are most beneficial in their educational effect. The children enjoy them, take great interest in them, and in the hands of a skilful Teacher they may be made important agencies in impressing correct habits, accurate observation, and definite expression.

Opinion of Mr. Tufnell.—Mr. Tufnell, in his Report on Infant Schools in 1846, states that he has 'little doubt that were good Infant Schools universally established in convenient localities, there would be little difficulty in securing in them the attendance of nearly the whole infant population of the poorer classes, between the ages of two and six or seven.' This he considers might be brought about, if for no better motive than for the convenience which it would be to the parents in enabling them safely to dispose of their offspring while they were at work. He added, as is evident to all, that it is impossible to over-estimate

the advantage of thus submitting the whole population to at least four or five years of instruction under intelligent Teachers.

Need of a Large Increase of Infant Schools.—The spread of efficient Infant Schools in all parts of the country must evidently be the simplest and surest means of vastly improving the educational condition of the community. Without fear of contradiction, therefore, it may be asserted that increased Infant School accommodation must form one of the main features in practically carrying out any improved educational measure, more particularly applicable to populous districts.

14. EVENING SCHOOLS.

Bishop Hinds' proposal.—Evening Schools under the Education Department are all in connection with Elementary Day Schools, assisted by the State. Through the exertions of Bishop Hinds, the principle of evening classes being included in the Scheme for Government Grants may be said to have originated. In a pamphlet published by the Bishop in 1839, entitled 'A letter to Mr. Senior on Supplemental Evening Schools,' he suggested that 500*l.* should be appropriated out of the Parliamentary Grant for establishing a plan of Evening Instruction to elder children. The Bishop's idea was to secure to boys on leaving the Elementary Schools for their ordinary avocations in life, which they usually did considerably before the age of twelve years, an opportunity for pursuing their studies for a few years longer. A blot on his scheme was that he proposed not to allow them to attend after they had completed their sixteenth year, whereas it is found that many above that age can be induced to avail themselves of evening instruction. Another peculiar mistake was that of closing the schools during the three winter months. Practical experience has shown that this is the very best time in the year to secure the attendance of the working-classes.

Assistance by the State—Results.— The encouragement now given for the promotion of Evening Schools by the Education Department consists of a payment of 5*s.* for each Scholar who attends at least twenty-four times, and passes in Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic—1*s.* 8*d.* is deducted for failure in any one of these subjects. These payments, as before stated, are limited entirely to evening classes connected with Day Schools. The grants made and the number of scholars examined in the last four years were as follows:—

Year	No. Examined	Amount Granted
		£
1866	31,481	11,333
1867	45,794	14,134
1868	58,327	17,664
1869	68,516	19,915

Working not Satisfactory.—The Committee of Council report, however, that the result of the examinations is not satisfactory. That for 1868 may be seen from the following table:—

Standard	Number Presented for Examination between the Ages of 12 and 21	Percentage of the Number Examined in each Standard who Failed to Pass in one or other of its Three Subjects
I.	16,216	28·51
II.	13,663	31·2
III.	10,383	36·42
IV.	7,273	34·84
V.	2,446	36·59
VI.	2,518	32·89

The whole number examined gave this result:—

7·98 per cent. failed in Reading.
15·69 ,, ,, Writing.
19·92 ,, ,, Arithmetic.

Conclusion from these Figures.—These figures show the deficient state of the education of those who attend the Evening Schools; and since it is evident, from the fact that they willingly join and even pay fees for instruction, that they are anxious to improve, and cannot therefore be the worst or most ignorant of their class, the results indicate, as the Report of the Committee of Council points out, the necessarily still more unsatisfactory state of those who from dissolute and lazy habits do not even enter the Evening School at all.

Working of Present Rules.—The increase in the number of Evening Scholars examined by the Education Department each year seems to be a sign that the private Evening Schools, considered in a subsequent part of this volume, are to a large extent giving way to regular Evening Classes inspected by the State. This increase has been much stimulated by the regulation enabling the managers of an Evening School to apply, under certain conditions, to hold the examination themselves at any period of the year. The papers of questions prepared by the

Education Department are sent from London, and the worked result transmitted to Whitehall, on a similar plan to that adopted by the Science and Art Department at its annual examinations in Science and Drawing.

Prospect of Advancement of Evening Schools.—The course of study pursued at these Evening Classes is almost entirely confined to Elementary Subjects, owing to the deficient education of the artisan classes who attend them. It may be fairly anticipated, however, that as the intellectual standard of all is raised by the action of the Act of last session, this condition of affairs will be changed. Evening Schools will then be filled with students requiring an advanced course of study, such as that now given to a comparatively few in Evening Science Classes. This will bring back much the state of affairs originally contemplated in the scheme for the formation of Evening Classes for artisans in connection with Mechanics' Institutions.

SCHOOLS IN CONNECTION

WITH THE

SCIENCE AND ART DEPARTMENT

OF THE

COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL

ON

EDUCATION.

SCIENCE SCHOOLS.

ART SCHOOLS.

TRADE SCHOOLS.

NAVIGATION SCHOOLS.

15. THE SCIENCE AND ART DEPARTMENT OF THE COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL ON EDUCATION.

Object of the Science and Art Department.—The Science and Art Department has been formed for the express purpose of raising the intellectual character of the community, and of supplying a more advanced system of instruction than that provided by the Elementary Schools of the Committee of Council. The Art branch of this Department was formed a short time before the Elementary Division of the Committee of Council commenced its operations. The Science branch was added in 1853, since which time it has been known under its present title.

Combination of Classes of Schools.—The regulations, as they arose, in connection with Science, Art, Navigation, and Trade Schools, are so diversified that it has been thought desirable to consider them in detail under each school to which they bear reference, rather than to describe them generally, as was done in the preceding series of schools under the Education Department. It will be remarked that three of the classes are now more or less combined, and are managed according to one uniform system. A chapter has nevertheless been devoted to each, as it may prove interesting to notice the links in the chain of circumstances which have led up to the present system of encouraging aid to scientific or advanced education to the working-classes.

Advanced Science Training—Teachers' Exhibitions.—The Royal School of Mines, Jermyn Street, the Royal College of Chemistry, Oxford Street, in London, and the Royal College of Science for Ireland, in Dublin, give instruction in advance of that to be obtained in the Science Schools. These Institutions are under the direction of the Science and Art Department. To a certain extent they act as a means of educating Teachers, and they also

afford an opportunity for a highly advanced training in Science to those who have commenced their study in Science Schools. The six Royal Exhibitions which are given away annually by these Institutions, form the prizes which are the most sought after at the annual Science examinations.

Educational Purposes of Museums, &c.—The whole scheme of this department has been framed with the object of affording greater facilities to all persons, and particularly to those of the artisan class, to obtain readily the means of improving themselves in subjects directly bearing on their occupations. Thus, in addition to the Science and Art Classes, which are described in this volume, other means of an educational character are provided. The most important of these is the instruction afforded by the Museums at South Kensington and Jermyn Street, in London, to which is shortly to be added a large branch Institution at Bethnal Green; the Museum of Science and Art in Edinburgh; and similar Institutions in Dublin. All are in connection with this department, and most of them have been established by its agency, through liberal grants from Parliament.

Opening of Museums in the Evenings.—Every arrangement is made at the Museums to facilitate the visits of the working-classes. Most of them are open free on certain evenings in the week, as originally suggested by the Science and Art Department. For many years objectors have been found to this plan, owing to the damage which is said to be done to works of art by gas. Whether this be the case or not, the advantage to the artisan class, who are unable to spare time for visiting Museums by daylight, cannot be over-estimated. It must outbalance any slight damage and extra wear and tear which may be involved in the exposure to gas, except perhaps in some few instances of very fragile and matchless works, which can easily be removed from exhibition in the evening.

Increase in Science Teaching depends on Elementary Education.—The action of a Department whose object is to afford advanced instruction must necessarily depend very greatly on the existing extent of elementary education. Without this, however great the opportunities of a higher culture may be, the masses of the people must remain unable to take advantage of them, owing to

their involving at the outset the exercise of mental powers which such persons, from their previously defective training, are unable to put forth. In this way it may be anticipated that the working of the Elementary Education Act of 1870 will tend very greatly in a few years to increase the field of operations of the Science and Art Department.

16. SCIENCE SCHOOLS.

Origin of Schools.—The Science Schools and classes for the instruction of artisans which now exist in about 600 places in the United Kingdom, have been established chiefly through the agency of the Science and Art Department. The origin of the Science Division of this Department dates from the year 1852, when the subject of giving encouragement to the advancement of practical science was mentioned in the following words by her Majesty in her speech from the throne on November 10, on opening the session of Parliament: 'The advancement of the fine arts and of practical science will be readily recognised by you as worthy of the attention of a great and enlightened nation. I have directed that a comprehensive scheme shall be laid before you, having in view the promotion of these objects, towards which I invite your aid and co-operation.'

Department for Science—Scheme—Institutions in Union.—In order to carry out this scheme, the Board of Trade, in a letter addressed to the Treasury, and signed by Mr. Cardwell on March 16, 1853, suggested the formation of a Department of Science similar to the one already existing under that Board for the encouragement of Practical Art. This letter further advised the formation of a metropolitan establishment for the collection of illustrations, models, &c., both in Science and Art, and of a Science School of a very high class, where pupils should complete their training, and from which information might be circulated to the Provincial Schools. The 'Government School of Mines and of Science applied to the Arts' was to discharge the functions of this Metropolitan School of Science; and, accordingly, it was proposed to place it under this new department, together with several other Institutions: namely, the Museum of Practical Geology, the Geological Survey, the Museum of Irish Industry,

the Royal Dublin Society, and, later, the Science and Art Museum, Edinburgh.

Metropolitan School of Science.—Her Majesty's Treasury approved of this scheme, laying particular stress on the suggestion that the best method of encouraging local Institutions would be attained by the creation of a Metropolitan School for Science; and, accordingly, the Board of Trade Department of Science and Art, as it was to be called, came into existence.

Results from 1853 to 1859 Unimportant.—During the first six years, that is from 1853 to 1859, very little was done for the promotion of Science, the title of Science and Art Department being almost a misnomer. A few experiments were tried, as will be more fully seen in the account of Trade and Navigation Schools, and invitations were held out to localities to take up the subject of Science instruction, but only eleven places in the United Kingdom responded. These were Aberdeen, Birmingham, Bristol, Leeds, Newcastle, Poplar (Green's Sailors' Home), Stoke, St. Thomas Charterhouse, Truro, Wigan, and Wandsworth. The attempts at Leeds, Newcastle, Stoke, Truro, and Wandsworth were, however, soon given up, and the want of success of the plans pursued may be judged of from the fact that the aid from the Department to all the Science classes for the six years amounted to but 898*l.* The great difficulty in all cases was to obtain any fair amount of local interest and pecuniary support, without which, at that time, it was not considered desirable to grant State aid.

Scholarships.—An attempt was made to establish Scholarships at the Metropolitan School of Science, so as to enable promising young men to develope their talents, by affording them the opportunity of having the best instruction. The Watt Institution and Edinburgh School of Arts was, in 1853, granted one of these Scholarships, of the value of 50*l.* a-year.

Transfer to Committee of Council.—In 1857 a Treasury Commission, composed of Lord Granville, Sir S. Northcote, and Sir C. Trevelyan, recommended that the Department of Science and Art should be transferred from the Board of Trade, and placed under the Lord President of the Council, assisted by a Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education, as a branch of, though distinct from, the Department for Primary Education.

Commencement of Present System.—It was not until the year 1859 that any general system of aid to Science instruction was framed which might be taken advantage of by any locality for its artisan population. In that year the Minute of June 2 was passed by Lord Salisbury and Mr. C. B. Adderley, to give aid in obtaining instruction in the following subjects, viz. :—

1. Practical and descriptive Geometry, with mechanical and machine drawing, and building construction.
2. Physics.
3. Chemistry.
4. Geology, Mineralogy (applied to Mining).
5. Natural History.

Mode of Aiding in Science Instruction.—By this Minute it was proposed to stimulate Teachers to undertake the work of instruction in the subjects, by making augmentation grants to their salaries, according to the certificates which they held, and also to give them additional payments for any superior results which they might produce. Examinations for Teachers to obtain these certificates of competency were to be held in London in November. The school was to be examined once a year by an Inspector, who would give the results, on which the payment would be made, and the prizes awarded.

Conditions—Local Aid to Equal Grants.—The conditions imposed for obtaining these grants were; that the Teacher gave instruction in a school approved by the Department for the Industrial Class; that suitable premises were maintained at the cost of the locality; that ten pupils at least had paid fees for half a year in advance; and, finally, that the local managers were willing to guarantee for the support of the schools, from fees or local funds, a sum at least equal to the Government grants. Without this, it was considered that the local requirements could not justify State aid being granted at all.

Local Assistance not Forthcoming.—The condition requiring local funds at least equal to the Government assistance, would have rendered the spread of Science Schools very slow, if not altogether impossible, but it was never imposed. It was argued, and no doubt with truth, that when persons desire a thing, they are willing to pay for it, and the amount of their liberality is in proportion to the desire they have for attaining the object; thus if a locality could not meet the State half way in the cost of a

Science School, the demand for the school and the desire to create it were not very great. It is, however, a fact that the more a school is really required, the greater is the apathy frequently displayed concerning it, and that this is a reason not for withdrawing, but for carefully increasing, the State aid. It is to be hoped that a time will come when the appreciation amongst all classes of the practical advantages of scientific knowledge will be so great, as to render a system of large payments or bribes on the part of the State unnecessary; but until such a change has taken place, it is unreasonable to suppose that localities will sacrifice time and money for an object they do not understand, and concerning the benefit of which they are at times quite incredulous.

Local Aid not made a Condition—Fees—Changes in Rules.—In March 1860, the first 'Science Directory,' a pamphlet containing all the regulations on which aid to Science instruction was to be granted, was issued. The condition concerning local subscriptions was withdrawn, though the importance of all students paying fees, and as large fees as can be possibly obtained, has since been strongly urged. In other particulars changes were made. The mechanical work of holding the examinations in the provinces was to be entrusted to Local Committees, to whom the examination papers prepared in London were to be sent. This superseded the action of the Inspectors, who formerly not only conducted the examination but prepared the questions for each school. The experience of the Society of Arts had shown that this could be done with great advantage. Prizes and medals were to be awarded in competition, one school against another, all over the kingdom, in the following manner. A separate evening was to be set apart for each subject, and simultaneous examinations held by the Local Committees in all places applying for the papers in that subject; these were to be sent by post on the evening before, from the Science and Art Department.

Payments to Teachers.—The mode of payment to Teachers was as follows. The total pecuniary values attached to the different certificates held by a Teacher both of the Education Department and of the Science and Art Department (that is, as well for general Education as for Science), being considered as a maximum, each Teacher was to receive in respect of it 4*l.* for every student of the Industrial Class who passed in any of the Science

subjects, provided that the amount was never greater than the total amount he was entitled to earn on account of the certificate or certificates he held. It was further required that each student should have received forty lessons at least in the year from the Teacher. Additional payments on the best successes—that is, on those who took prizes—were to remain as before, and be in *addition* to this allowance.

First May Examination, 1861.—The first examination conducted in this manner took place in May 1861, and one has been held about the same time each year ever since.

Increase in Subjects of Science aided.—As the system continued, it became necessary on more than one occasion to increase the Subjects of Science aided by grants, and also to subdivide those included under one heading in the original Minute. Thus, in 1860, Physics was divided into Mechanical and Experimental Physics, and these were again subdivided, the former into Theoretical and Applied Mechanics, and the latter into Acoustics, Light, Heat, Magnetism and Electricity. The next year Natural History was split up into—

1. Animal Physiology,
2. Zoology,
3. Vegetable Physiology, and
4. Economic and Systematic Botany;

each subject being treated as distinct, and an examination held accordingly. Later, in 1862, Mining and Metallurgy were added to the list.

Lectures to Teachers.—As a means of spreading information on the best modes of conducting Science classes for artisans, courses of Lectures, which were afterwards printed for publication, were delivered each winter for several years. These were addressed principally to Teachers, who were admitted by payment of a nominal fee of 6*d.* for the course.

Royal Exhibitions.—In 1862 the 'Royal Exhibitions' and 'Free Admissions' to the Royal School of Mines, Jermyn Street, were instituted. The idea of establishing these Scholarships emanated from a recommendation contained in a Report on this Institution made that year by Lord Granville, Sir Charles E. Trevelyan, and the Right Honourable Robert Lowe. These Exhibitions, tenable for three years, of which eight, and soon after nine, were established, consisted of 50*l.* a year, and carried with them the

privilege of free admission to all the lectures at the Royal School of Mines, and the College of Chemistry. They were awarded at the May examination, to the students who obtained the highest number of marks. In 1865, ten (afterwards reduced to nine) similar Exhibitions, awarded in precisely the same way, were established in connection with the newly created Royal College of Science in Dublin. Since that time, six have been awarded each year, the three candidates standing highest on the list being allowed to select the Institution at which they would prefer to attend. By this means several excellent teachers have been trained for the work of the Science Schools. In some cases the Exhibition has led to the holder obtaining a good private appointment.

Payments on Results.—In 1862, following the example at the Education Department concerning Primary Schools, the system of certificate allowance was abolished, and all the teachers' earnings were made to depend on the result of their instruction, as shown at the annual examination of their pupils. No one, however, was allowed to teach, unless he had passed at the November examinations and obtained a certificate.* Those who had fulfilled this condition were eligible to receive a payment for each student of the industrial class successful at the annual examination, to whom they gave forty lessons in a subject in which they themselves were certificated. This payment was to be 5*l.* for each first-class success, 4*l.* for each second-class, 3*l.* for each third-class, 2*l.* for each fourth-class, and 1*l.* for each fifth-class.

Combination of Science and Navigation School Rules.—In 1865, the system of aid to the Navigation Schools, which had been for a long time in an unsatisfactory state, was merged into that for Science, and, in future, payments were made on the same plan, and the examinations held at the same time, in those subjects which had previously been divided into two branches, as Science and Navigation. The list of subjects was accordingly increased, and became as follows:—

1. Practical Plane and Solid Geometry.
2. Machine-Drawing.
3. Building Construction.

* Exceptions have always been made in favour of persons who have taken a University degree. If these apply they are registered as eligible to earn payment without undergoing examination. A very large number of men of well-known scientific attainments have availed themselves of this regulation. At the present time the number thus registered exceeds 250.

4. Elementary Mathematics.
5. Higher Mathematics.
6. Theoretical Mechanics.
7. Applied Mechanics.
8. Acoustics, Light and Heat.
9. Magnetism and Electricity.
10. Inorganic Chemistry.
11. Organic Chemistry.
12. Geology.
13. Mineralogy.
14. Animal Physiology.
15. Zoology.
16. Vegetable Physiology and Economic Botany.
17. Systematic Botany.
18. Mining.
19. Metallurgy.
20. Navigation.
21. Nautical Astronomy.
22. Steam.
23. Physical Geography.

With the exception of a considerable expansion of Mathematics into seven stages, no important alterations have in this respect been made since that time.

Excellent Work of Local Committees.—The work of holding examinations in this long list of subjects, which extends over a month each year, continues to be entirely conducted by the Local Committees, in addition to the duties which devolve upon them, and chiefly on their Secretary, in superintending the correspondence and issuing the returns connected with each school. This work has been on the whole admirably performed, and the Department of Science and Art on more than one occasion has drawn attention to the assistance thus given by private persons in all parts of the country, without which the system could not have been carried out.

Organising Master.—In order to aid Local Committees in arranging and starting classes, the Science and Art Department frequently found it expedient to send an officer to the spot. Owing to the increase in the schools, such assistance was often called for, and an Organising Teacher was accordingly appointed to be sent on the application of localities wishing to commence

Science Classes, for the purpose of explaining the regulations in force, and giving such advice as a practical teacher was qualified to give. This plan has had considerable influence in spreading the knowledge of the scheme and in increasing the number of Science Schools.

Abolition of Certificates—Reasons—Substitute.—The next change of importance took place in the year 1867, when the special examinations for Teachers' certificates in November were abolished. The chief reason for this was the cost entailed by the examination. There were, however, other causes not less important which led to the alteration, and these were—

1st.—The impossibility of making the November certificates more difficult to obtain than the higher successes in May, and the consequent false impression which the certificates gave of the knowledge possessed by the owner over the successful student in a class.

2nd.—The period of the year at which the Teachers' examinations were held, which prevented the early formation of the classes after the summer vacation, and which consequently led to a considerable waste of time.

As a substitute for the qualification of a November certificate, it was decided that in future all candidates who obtained a 1st or 2nd class at the May examinations should be deemed qualified to earn payments on results. This was a step in the direction of abolishing any qualification as a condition of payment on Science teaching; but it may be regretted that, as the payments were on results, the opportunity was not taken of completely getting rid of any restriction.

Agitation for Technical Education in 1867.—The practical bearing of Science teaching on the state of manufactures was much discussed in 1867. This was brought about by the Paris Exhibition of that year, which caused the work of this country to be closely compared with that of the rest of the Continent, and in many points, both of manufacture and of skilled labour, it was found that England did not stand in such a good position as she had done a few years back. Dr. Lyon Playfair, in a letter published in 'The Times' newspaper, drew particular attention to this, attributing much, if not all, the evil to the deficiency of technical education among the artisan class. The substance of this letter was taken up by many persons of influence during the autumnal recess, and it led to the cry for

technical education becoming an absorbing topic of conversation among all circles, and forming a considerable portion of the contents of many of the periodicals. Meetings were convened and addresses delivered in different parts of the country, and the question was so much ventilated that important changes were anticipated in educational arrangements during the coming session of Parliament. These arrangements, unfortunately, were put off on account of the debates on the Reform Bill of 1868.

Effects of the Working of Science Schools.—The agitation necessarily brought prominently forward the work of the Science division of the Science and Art Department, and it is not a little remarkable how completely the system which had been growing up since 1860 seemed to meet the requirements of the case, though, in spite of all that had been done to spread a knowledge of the scheme, comparatively few persons had any idea of its provisions. There can be no doubt but that this six years' work had materially, though silently, effected a change in the general tone of feeling on the subject of scientific education, and had been the means of preparing the country for the 1867 agitation. The altered feeling among the working classes on the subject is forcibly shown in the Sixteenth Annual Report of the Science and Art Department, page 73. From this it appears that in 1860 a pupil in one of the Science classes in Manchester, a town usually looked upon as in advance of others, could hardly continue his attendance at the class, owing to the taunts and ill-treatment of his companions. Nevertheless, in the autumn of this year hardly enough could be said or done to satisfy the desire for Science Classes being formed for these very persons who, but six years previously, had considered a Government Science School as almost inimical to the interests of their trade.

Local Scholarships and Exhibitions.—A plan was adopted in 1868 which it was hoped would be the means of enabling children in poor schools who possessed talents to rise step by step, according to their abilities. This was by the creation of local Exhibitions, which are still in operation. Its action depends largely upon the energy of the locality, as in all cases* the money granted is only to subsidise that raised in the neighbourhood. The Scholarships are intended to maintain students while they remain at Elementary Schools a year or two longer than

* In the first year a Local Subscription was not required for a Science and Art Scholarship.

they otherwise would, and the Exhibitions are to support them while pursuing their studies at some central institution, where the scientific instruction is of a high grade.

Classes of Scholarships.—The Scholarships are of two kinds—
1st.—The Elementary School Scholarship.
2nd.—The Science and Art Scholarship.

The Elementary School Scholarship.—The Elementary School Scholarship consists of a grant of 5*l.* towards the maintenance of a deserving student at any Elementary School. The managers to whom the payment is made on behalf of the child or his parents undertake to support him for one year by subscribing at least 5*l.* for that purpose, which sum is to be added to the above grant from the Department. The conditions are, that any school is eligible for one such Scholarship, and can claim another for every 100 pupils under instruction. The boy or girl must be from 12 to 16 years of age, and not a Teacher, Pupil Teacher, or other paid servant. The reward is made after a competition among the scholars, and this competition is conducted by the managers as they think best, and in subjects which they may select. The scholar, when appointed, is to attend regularly at the Day School, and in the succeeding May examination it is necessary that he or she pass in one or more branches of Science, after which the Department grant is made.

The Science and Art Scholarship.—The Science and Art Scholarship differs from the above, inasmuch as the Department gives 10*l.*, though a like contribution of 5*l.* is required from the managers. It is awarded in competition at the May Science examination among the pupils of any school applying for it, but it is a condition that none can obtain it unless he or she has taken 1st grade in Freehand or Model Drawing, and Elementary Geometry. In other respects the conditions are similar to those for an Elementary Scholarship.

Local Exhibitions.—The Local Exhibition consists of a grant of 25*l.* per annum to the managers of any Institution or Local Committee who raise a like sum by voluntary contributions for the maintenance of a student at some college or school where scientific instruction of an advanced character can be obtained. The Exhibition must be awarded, after competition in one or more branches of Science, at the May examination. The Committees are at liberty to select the subjects and state the

respective rates of value they would wish each to bear in reference to the other. The candidates must be of the artisan class only, and in cases where the Royal School of Mines, the Royal College of Chemistry, or the Royal College of Science, Dublin, is selected as the place of study, the fees are remitted in addition to the Department award of 25*l.*

Effect of these Scholarships and Exhibitions.—By means of the assistance given by the Scholarships, it is hoped that a promising boy may be kept at school a few extra years, and afterwards, if giving hope of unusual ability, may be enabled to complete his education in a thoroughly scientific manner by the assistance afforded by the Exhibitions. The practical effect of the regulations so far has been encouraging.

Divisions of Subjects — Honours.—The alterations recently effected in the regulations for Science Schools have been almost entirely confined to improvements in the classification of the subjects and in varying the modes of payment for teaching, such payment having of late been somewhat reduced. Each subject is now divided into two, viz., an Elementary and an Advanced stage, and, in addition to this, an Honours course is laid down, in order to give those who wish to show their proficiency an opportunity of doing so. It also enables persons to become qualified to earn payments without it being necessary for them to sit at the same examination as their pupils.

Whitworth Scholarships — General Scheme.—The munificent endowment by Sir Joseph Whitworth, for spreading scientific education by means of Scholarships, was made in 1868. In a letter to the Premier, the Right Hon. B. Disraeli, M.P., dated March 18 of that year, Sir Joseph stated his desire to promote the engineering and mechanical industry of this country, by founding 30 Scholarships of the annual value of 100*l.* each, to be applied for the further instruction of young men under 26 years of age, natives of the United Kingdom, selected by open competition for their intelligence and proficiency in the theory and practice of mechanics and its cognate sciences. The conditions and regulations for awarding these Scholarships were defined in a deed of trust vesting the endowment in the Lord President of the Council, or other Minister of Public Instruction. The management of this endowment of 100,000*l.*

was accordingly placed under the Department of Science and Art, and a correspondence took place with Sir Joseph on the subject of his wishes in the matter.

Mode of Examination—Theoretical and Practical.—The examinations for awarding the Scholarships are twofold, viz.:—

1st. That in theoretical knowledge in the following subjects, viz.:

1. Mathematics (Elementary and Higher).
2. Mechanics (Theoretical and Applied).
3. Practical, Plane, and Descriptive Geometry, and Mechanical and Freehand Drawing.
4. Physics.
5. Chemistry, including Metallurgy.

2nd. That in practical work, especially to test the power of candidates in using one or more of the following classes of tools, viz.:

a. The axe.
b. The saw and plane.
c. The hammer and chisel.
d. The file.
e. The forge.

A satisfactory knowledge of the theoretical subjects 1, 2, and 3, and proficiency in the use of one at least of these classes of tools, being essential for success. For those who wish to gain additional credit an examination is also held in

a. Smiths' work.
b. Turning.
c. Filing and fitting.
d. Pattern-making and moulding.

The results of these two examinations are combined, and the Scholarships are given to those who obtain the highest number of marks in both collectively, an arrangement being made to secure that at least half the recipients are of the artisan class. The theoretical examination is held with the general Science examination of the Science and Art Department in May; and the practical work forms a special examination at the workshops of Messrs. Whitworth & Co.

Employment of Whitworth Scholars.—Those who obtain Whitworth Scholarships spend their time in the further prosecution of their studies, and in the practice of mechanical engineering. They are required to make periodical reports of their progress.

If the student wishes to complete his general education, instead of continuing his special scientific study, he is permitted

to do so. He may go to a University or College affording scientific instruction, or even travel abroad. The successful artisan is encouraged to study theory, and the successful competitor in theory is aided in getting admission into machine shops and other practical establishments.

Temporary Granting of Whitworth Exhibitions.—Inasmuch as the scheme of Scholarships could not come fully into operation for some years, in order to make the conditions and object of the endowment more extensively known, Sir J. Whitworth created 60 exhibitions of 25*l.* each, tenable till April 1869, and in the following year 80, tenable till April 1870; these he placed at the disposal of the governing bodies of various Educational Institutions and the municipal authorities of certain provincial towns, in order that they might award them as they thought best to deserving students under 22 (afterwards increased to 25) years of age. All who accepted Exhibitions were required to compete at the next examination for Scholarships. Eight were given to Owen's College, Manchester; two to the Grammar School, Manchester; three to the University of Oxford; three to the University of Cambridge; three to the University of London; one to King's College, London; one to Eton; one to Rugby; one to Birmingham, &c.

Faculty of Industry.—In the correspondence on the subject of the endowment, Sir J. Whitworth submitted, for the consideration of the Government, the advisability of creating a 'Faculty of Industry,' analogous to the existing Faculties of Divinity, Law, and Medicine. He urged that such honours conferred by some competent authority would be a great incentive to exertion, and tend to promote the knowledge of Mechanical Science. He also hoped that the Government would provide funds for endowing a sufficient number of Professors of Mechanics throughout the country.

Practical Chemistry Class.—In order to encourage the instruction of Practical Chemistry, regulations have been made during the last year for granting extra payments of 10*s.* and 1*l.* on each student who shows a good knowledge of laboratory practice at the May examination. In addition to this, assistance is afforded under certain conditions to the extent of 1*l.*, towards the expenses of a student in the laboratory; that is, in supplying him with the requisite apparatus to pursue his studies.

The effect of this minute bids fair to be eminently successful. There are at the present time (December 1870) at least 600 students under this instruction, the greater number of whom are artisans. The illustration forming the frontispiece of this volume shows such a class at work in Islington at the Lower Public School. It meets once a week, and is attended by 25 to 30 students, composed largely of *bonâ-fide* pupils of the industrial class.

Growth of Science Instruction.—The gradual development of the Science Schools may be best seen from the following tables of the number of classes which have been in operation, and the payments which have been granted each year in the various subjects.

Number of Science Classes examined in May in each Year from 1861 to 1870.

	1861	1862	1863	1864	1865	1866	1867	1868	1869	1870
I. Practical, Plane, and Solid Geometry	3	9	13	14	28	30	51	91	158	257
II. Machine construction and Drawing	3	6	12	13	17	28	42	81	153	247
III. Building construction and Naval Architecture	2	4	7	5	6	17	26	63	129	226
IV. Elementary Mathematics	...	...	...	5	16	25	54	86	153	221
V. Higher Mathematics					6	1	5	1	5	6
VI. Theoretical Mechanics	5	9	3	5	12	11	23	35	53	57
VII. Applied Mechanics	4	8	1	4	6	10	14	21	16	47
VIII. Acoustics, Light and Heat	4	8	8	18	18	19	43	49	93	134
IX. Magnetism and Electricity	6	10	13	19	20	21	39	59	132	170
X. Inorganic Chemistry.	25	43	46	57	70	76	88	79	152	191
XI. Organic Chemistry	6	10	17	18	18	15	14	11	25	22
XII. Geology	5	12	13	19	16	23	20	24	41	64
XIII. Mineralogy	5	13	8	4	5	4	3	3	8	8
XIV. Animal Physiology	6	11	15	18	30	27	38	68	129	220
XV. Zoology	5	8	6	10	11	6	8	14	15	8
XVI. Vegetable Physiology	3	9	12	12	20	18	13	13	19	27
XVII. Systematic Botany	...	2	8	8	7	8	9	7	9	14
XVIII. Mining	...	...	3	3	2	6	5	5	3	4
XIX. Metallurgy	...	...	5	4	5	4	5	4	13	7
XX. Navigation	...	...	...	6	4	5	11	16	22	22
XXI. Nautical Astronomy	...	...	...	4	4	4	6	5	12	8
XXII. Steam	...	...	...	1	3	4	4	6	5	25
XXIII. Physical Geography	...	...	...	3	7	23	43	87	111	219
Total number of classes	82	162	190	250	331	365	564	828	1,456	2,204

Table showing the Number of Schools and the Persons examined, and the Proportional Payments to Teachers from 1859 to 1870.

Year	Number of Persons under Instruction in Science Schools and Classes	Number of Individuals examined	Number of Papers worked	Number of Teachers paid	Number of Schools examined	Payments to Teachers on Results.	Proportional Payment for each Person under Instruction	Proportional Payment for each Person examined	Proportional Payment for each Paper worked
						£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1859	438	About half.	...	6	4	242	...	...	...
1860	500	About half.	...	12	9	709	1 8 4	...	...
1861	1,330	650	979	26	38	1,298	0 19 6½	1 19 11	1 6 6
1862	2,543	1,239	1,943	51	70	2,666	1 0 10	2 3 0	1 7 5
1863	3,111	1,581	2,671	52	75	3,240	1 0 10	2 0 11	1 4 3
1864	4,666	2,070	3,644	70	91	3,076	0 15 3	1 9 8	0 16 10
1865	5,479	2,383	4,592	92	120	3,500	0 13 0	1 9 4	0 15 2
1866	6,835	2,980	5,466	123	153	5,002	0 14 7	1 13 6	0 18 3
1867	10,230	4,520	8,213	194	212	7,976	0 15 7	1 15 3	0 19 5
1868	15,010	7,161	13,112	285	300	12,725	0 16 10	1 15 6	0 19 4
1869	25,680	12,915	24,085	460	509	17,015	0 13 3	1 6 4	0 14 1
1870	*34,283	*17,000	34,413	*750	799	*20,000	0 11 8	1 3 6	0 11 7

* Approximate.

Cause of Success of Present System.—The real cause of the success of the plan, which, with the various modifications thus sketched out, has been in operation since 1860, is that, without irksome conditions, offers have been held out to enterprising teachers to form classes. The plans from 1853 to 1860, all seemed to aim at awakening the locality to a sense of its duties and responsibilities to perform the task of educating its artisan classes, not only without profit to itself, but at a sacrifice of both time and money. The new plan held out pecuniary inducements direct to teachers. It said, 'If you will qualify yourself to teach, passing such and such an examination, the State will remunerate you for every artisan you can succeed in educating up to a certain standard; the amount of the remuneration to be in proportion to the instruction imparted; if, on the contrary, the teaching is deficient, and brings forth no fruit at the annual examination, no payment is to be made.' The country desired science instruction for its artisans, and it obtained it at first cost, without the establishment of any expensive machinery. All the risk of success, the chief work of organising the schools and getting the pupils together, fell upon the teachers, whose pecuniary interest it was to make the classes successful.

Education of Teachers.—It must be considered also that this

system has been a means of educating teachers at no cost to the State, such as an outlay on Science-training Colleges would have involved. Pupils of superior ability have prosecuted their studies for several years in a science class, and in numerous cases have become successful teachers.

Conclusion—Professor Huxley's Opinion.—Such is a brief account of the history and present action of Science Schools. The frequent and rapid alterations in the rules of the Science and Art Department respecting them have been caused by the novelty of the scheme, and the desirability of immediately correcting mistakes as they were discovered. It is the opinion of Professor Huxley, as stated at the Conference on Technical Education held at the Society of Arts, that the system is having an important and lasting effect on the state of the scientific education of the working classes throughout the country.

17. SCHOOLS OF ART.

Origin of Schools of Design.—Schools of Art, or, as they were at first called, 'Schools of Design,' may be said to have been originated in this country in 1835. A Select Committee of the House of Commons was appointed in that year 'to inquire into the best means of extending a knowledge of the Arts and of the principles of Design among the people, especially the manufacturing population of the country; also to inquire into the constitution, management, and effects of Institutions connected with the Arts.'

House of Commons' Committee, 1835.—The Report of the Committee for the first year merely set forth that the subject of inquiry had been divided into three heads, viz.:—

1. The state of Art in this country and in other countries, as manifested in their different manufactories.
2. The best means of extending among the people, especially the manufacturing classes, a knowledge of and a taste for Art.
3. The state of the higher branches of Art, and the best mode of advancing them.

Committee of 1836—Want of Art Instruction.—The Committee was re-appointed in the following year, and completed its labours by publishing another Report, to which was appended copious evidence from the chief authorities on such matters, both English and foreign. It was, however, forcibly pointed out that the want of instruction in Design, and the absence of public and freely open galleries containing approved specimens of Art, was the chief cause of the difference between the artistic feeling of the English manufacturing districts, and that of similar districts in France and other countries of the Continent. As a proof that manufacturers and work-people were aware of this deficiency, and were alive to the importance of removing it,

this evidence further showed the interest taken in the subject by the labouring classes in Birmingham, Sheffield, London, and Coventry. This was particularly shown at the latter place, where the manufacturing workmen had gone so far as to petition the House of Commons for instruction in Design.

Recommendations—Public Galleries Art should be a part of National Education.—The Report recommended that a Normal School should be created; and also that Government assistance should be granted towards establishing Schools of Design similar to that which was given to Elementary Schools. At the same time it was carefully laid down that 'the interposition of the Government should not extend to interference, it should aim at the development and extension of Art, but it should neither control its action nor force its cultivation.' The formation of public galleries of Art was also strongly advocated. These, it was thought, should be open freely to the people, and should contain casts of the best works, examples of ornament, and also the most approved modern specimens of art manufactures, both foreign and domestic. The Committee stated its opinion that, with a view to extend a knowledge of Art among the people, it was most desirable that the principles of Design should form a portion of any permanent system of National Education. Such Elementary Instruction should be based on an extension of the knowledge of form, by the adoption of a bold style of geometrical and outline drawing, such as was then practised in the National Schools of Bavaria.

First Vote for School of Design.—The evidence before this Committee all tended to show the advantage likely to accrue to the country by some systematic plan of Art-education among the working classes. In consequence of the publication of these statements, endorsed as they were at the time by considerable public interest manifested on the subject throughout the country, the first vote of 1,500*l.* was taken in 1836 for the establishment of a Normal School of Design.

First Meeting at the Board of Trade.—Parliament having thus granted the necessary funds, the practical carrying out of the Scheme devolved on the Board of Trade: a meeting was accordingly held at the Treasury on December 19, 1836, to consider the best means of establishing a School of Design in Ornamental Art, 'in consequence of the present low condition of the Art of the country.' At this meeting the chair was taken

by the President of the Board of Trade, the Right Honourable Sir C. Poulett Thomson, and the following gentlemen, having received special summonses, were present: A.W. Callcott, Esq. R.A.; Sir Francis Chantrey, R.A.; C. R. Cockerell, Esq. R.A.; Alderman Copeland, M.P.; C. L. Eastlake, Esq. R.A.; H. Bellenden Ker, Esq.; Apsley Pellatt, Esq.

Opening of School of Design, 1837.—At this meeting Committees were formed to arrange the various branches necessary to complete the scheme and bring it into working order. This was accomplished by the opening of the Government School of Design at Somerset House on June 1, 1837, the number of pupils being twelve.

Staff—Payments on Results.—The staff of the School was as follows—Mr. Papworth, Director, with a salary of 250*l.* to 500*l.*; Mr. Papworth, junior, Secretary and Librarian, with a salary of 70*l.*, and 20*l.* more to come from fees; Mr. Lambelette, Principal Drawing Master, with a fixed salary of 150*l.*, and 50*l.* to be derived from a share in the fees from students; Mr. Spratt, Second Drawing Master, with a salary of 125*l.*, and 25*l.* from fees; and Mr. James Leigh, Modeller, at a salary of 70*l.* It will be remarked that the teachers at the commencement were to depend, to a certain extent, on the fees realised to the School by their teaching. This was, however, changed as early as 1838, as stated in the minutes: 'that, in order to simplify the accounts of the School, it is desirable to pay fixed salaries to Professors and Teachers, and no longer to leave any portion of them dependent upon the fees paid by the students.'

Course of Instruction—Rules for Admission.—The scheme of the Schools, as laid down by the Committee, was as follows:—The pupils were to be taught not only Drawing, but were to be made acquainted, by taking the best-known works as guides, with the principles and modes of changing and combining fine forms of ornament, aided by light, shade, and colour. Instruction in the chemistry of colours was also to be given. The rules concerning the management and conduct of students were to be similar to those in force at the Royal Academy. Each student had to devote himself to the object of the School, namely to amend and advance the interests of manufactures and ornamental trade. He had to be proposed by some respectable and responsible persons, and was required to sign a statement setting forth the particular object of his pursuit. It was also necessary that he should have

a certain amount of proficiency in drawing, which was to be tested when he sent in his application for admission.

Hours of Attendance—Fees—Management.—At first it was thought sufficient to open the School only from 10 A.M to 4 P.M., but after two months' experience it was found desirable to add an Evening School from 6 to 9 P.M. The fees were originally somewhat high, viz. 16*s.* per month for day, and 8*s.* for evening instruction. This was reduced in 1839 to 12*s.* and 6*s.* a quarter. To those who paid the full morning fee the privilege was granted of attending the evening instruction. The management of the school was placed under the control of an Honorary Council, composed of several influential persons. This body met at stated intervals, and, subject to the Board of Trade, settled points concerning the appointment and duties of the Masters as well as all the other details of the School.

Plan of Study.—The plan of study was fixed after the experience of the various Foreign Schools had been ascertained, and was divided into two sections as follows :—

I. Elementary, embracing the usual branches of study, viz. Outline drawing of ornament, and of the human figure, shadowing, drawing from plaster, modelling, and colouring.

II. Instruction in Design for special branches of industry, and under this head was included :

1st. The study of fabrics, and of such processes of industry as admit only of the application of Design under certain conditions, and

2nd. The study of the history of taste in manufacture ; the distinction of styles of ornament ; and such theoretical knowledge as was calculated to improve the tastes of the pupils, and to add to their general acquaintance with Art. In addition to this, on two days a week, practical instruction was given in the manufacture of silk, a Jacquard loom being supplied for that purpose. This was, however, abandoned very shortly, as it was not taken advantage of to any considerable extent. The Director and others also gave lectures during the Winter Session, on designs, and subjects connected with the different branches of Ornamental Art, and its application to Manufactures, to which all the students had free admission.

Irregular Attendance—Statistics.—The attendance of the students was not, however, as regular as could have been desired,

owing to many of them being engaged in their duties as apprentices, and in other ways. The number of pupils varied remarkably during the first few years. At the opening of the school in 1837, there were 12, as before stated; in September, 41; and in December, 60. In April 1838 there were 79, whilst in November the attendance had decreased to 35. In 1839 the numbers were about the same as in the previous year, but in 1840 they materially increased, averaging 123. The greater number of these, however, came only in the evening. A striking fact, as showing how short a time each pupil must have remained regularly at the Schools, is, that only one individual attended from the opening, in June, 1837, to the end of the year 1840.

Casts and Models—Exhibitions of Students' Works.—The first report of the Council of the Schools of Design, in 1841, stated that efforts had been made to increase the supply of good casts and models, and also that it was proposed to hold periodical exhibitions of the students' works.

Need of Local Schools.—Considering the fact that the School at Somerset House was the only institution in the kingdom for instruction in the principles of Design, the small average attendance during the first three years of its existence could hardly be regarded as satisfactory. In spite of this, however, and the difficulties arising from the irregular attendance, sanguine hopes were entertained of its ultimate successful working: though it became evident that local branch institutions in different parts of London and the provinces would be necessary, if much effect was to be produced on the general aspect of the country and its manufactures.

Spitalfields—First Local School.—The first Local School of this description was that at Spitalfields. The Council applied part of the public funds to furnish it, and paid the salary of the Master for the first year, when forty-one pupils attended.

Assistance of His Royal Highness Prince Albert.—In 1841 His Royal Highness Prince Albert, who always took great interest in the Art-manufactures of the country, gave away the prizes which had been obtained by the students at the Somerset House School of Design. The publicity given to these proceedings was the means of making the object of the Schools better known; and the weight of the Prince's support—which was after this continually given to the undertaking—in no small degree tended to its future success.

Establishment of Female School—Wood-Engraving.—Up to the year 1842 the School of Design was limited to male students, but after some discussion it was considered desirable to establish a Female Branch in connection with it. This was opened on October 24, 1842, in the upper rooms of a building opposite Somerset House. The course of instruction was similar to that in the Male School, with the addition of wood-engraving. The question as to the study of this subject gave rise to considerable discussion, owing to a Memorial from the Wood-Engravers of London against such a course being pursued. The Council thought it desirable nevertheless to continue the class.

Amount of Grants and Fees.—The Schools both for Male and Female Students remained under the superintendence of the Council for the next few years, subject to the control of the Board of Trade. According to the Report in 1843, it appears that the Government grant in aid had varied each year, as shown in the following table :—

Year	Vote	Fees received from Students
	£	£
1837–8	1,500	183
1838–9	1,300	167
1839–40	1,300	103
1840–1	1,300	133
1841–2	750	164
1842–3	2,677	238
1843–4	2,427	326

The amount of the fees taken from the students, which is perhaps a better test of the progress of the schools, is given in the third column. The considerable falling-off in 1839–40 was due to the reduction in the fee already noticed. The number of students had increased at the end of 1844 to 348.

Grants to Establish Provincial Schools.—The desirability of giving the larger provincial towns the advantages secured to London by means of the School of Design, was so felt that, in 1840, in addition to the annual grants to Somerset House, a sum of 10,000*l.* was voted by Parliament, in order to assist in the establishment of Provincial Schools by aiding in the purchase of the necessary outfit of casts, &c., and by occasionally guaranteeing the salaries of the teachers. By this means several of the earliest Institutions throughout the country were set on foot, and in 1844 the seven under-mentioned were in active operation, with the following number of pupils :—

Town	Pupils
Manchester	105
Birmingham { Male	168
Birmingham { Female	48
Coventry	127
Sheffield	48
Nottingham	56
York	82
Newcastle	93

Adding together therefore all the pupils above referred to with those at the Central Male and Female Schools, and the 238 from the Spitalfields Branch, a total number of 1,313 was found to be under instruction in Design in 1844. It should be stated, however, that the education at the Provincial Schools was limited for the most part to the elementary stages of Drawing, and did not include at that time any advanced course on the principles of designing. This was chiefly due to the fact of their having been but recently established, and from it being strictly enforced that no one should be permitted to advance from the Elementary Class, until he could execute outline drawing with satisfactory correctness.

Conditions of Provincial Grants.—The conditions on which this aid was given to localities wishing to start Provincial Schools of Design were:—

1st.—That the School should be a separate Institution.

2nd.—That local co-operation, at least equal to the Government grant, should be guaranteed for three years.

3rd.—That the furniture and casts, the value of which varied from 150*l.* to 500*l.*, should remain the property of the Government, being simply on loan to the schools.

4th.—That the grants in aid of salary, &c., should be contingent on the success of the pupils.

5th.—That the subjects, course, and method of instruction should be under the superintendence of the Director of the Central School.

Extension of Hours.—In 1847, on a memorial from the students, the hours of the Evening Classes of the Central School were prolonged for an extra half-hour, and the school was afterwards closed at half-past nine instead of nine.

Unsatisfactory State of Central School—Improvements.—The working of the Central School was not considered to be so

satisfactory about 1846 and 1847 as had been expected; nor did the course of instruction appear to many to be such as was originally intended, or of a nature likely to fulfil the objects of the Institution. A Special Committee of the Council was summoned in 1847, in order to investigate this matter. Their Report showed that the principles of original design, as applicable to manufacturers, were not sufficiently taught. It stated, 'We cannot regard this instruction, which appears to be neither general nor systematic, as the whole which ought to be given in respect of Ornamental Art.' Suggestions were made for an amended course, as also for adjusting the administrative arrangements between the Director and Masters, which do not appear to have worked very harmoniously.

Committee of 1849.—Schools not practical enough.—The alterations thus made did not have the effect of satisfying those interested in the Art-education of the country, for in 1849 a Committee of the House of Commons was appointed 'to inquire into the constitution and management of the Government School of Design.' Their Report stated that the unanimous feeling was, that the maintenance of Schools of Design was an object of national importance; but, while recognising the value of the elementary teaching imparted in these schools—which had undoubtedly produced beneficial effects—nearly all the witnesses considered that the schools should have a more practical character. They also agreed that the system of management was unsatisfactory and should be changed.

Results of Expenditure—Parliamentary Grants.—The sum of 10,000*l.*, which had been voted in 1840 for establishing Provincial Schools, was exhausted this year. It had been the means of providing for the Art-education of 2,241 pupils, at 14 separate schools, situated in the following places, viz.:—

Sheffield	Hanley
Manchester	Leeds
Birmingham	Huddersfield
Coventry	Newcastle
Nottingham	Glasgow
Norwich	Paisley
Stoke	

No further sum for the special object of establishing schools was, however, voted by Parliament, but the amounts necessary

for each school, and for commencing new ones, were stated annually on the estimate required for defraying the expenses of the existing Schools of Design. These public grants were not strictly made to any special Department, but were voted as a contribution to each town for the purpose of encouraging Art-education; thus Stourbridge received 150*l.*, Sheffield 600*l.*, &c. This sum was usually paid over at once to the Head Master, but not necessarily so, for in some cases it was apportioned to the several Masters at the discretion of the Committee of Management. The total vote in 1850–51 amounted to 14,755*l.*

Change of Administration.—The Report above referred to led to a complete change in the management of the schools. The irresponsible Council was abolished, and a Committee of the Board of Trade itself was formed to superintend all administrative matters, whilst another Committee, consisting of the three Head Masters, carried on the work of the schools themselves. One of these Head Masters, Mr. R. Redgrave, was afterwards selected to represent the others at the meetings at the Board of Trade.

Formation of Department of Practical Art.—This arrangement was not, however, found to succeed, and the Board of Trade, in a letter to the Secretary of the Treasury, dated January 29, 1852, stated that 'although, in many respects, there appears reason to be satisfied with the progress of the Schools, and the influence they have exercised upon Ornamental Art in the United Kingdom, my Lords are led to believe that there are serious defects in the present management of them, which greatly impair their efficiency, and are calculated to lead to their disorganisation, and to comparative failure in the objects for which they were established.' The Board of Trade consequently suggested the creation of a separate Department, still under their own control, to be called the 'Department of Practical Art.' To this the Treasury agreed, and in February 1852 the Schools of Design were placed under this new management.

General Scheme of New Department.—The action of the new Department was considerably more extensive than that under the old system. Owing to the deficiency of Art-education throughout the country, the 21 Schools of Design which had been created had been of necessity 'mere Drawing Schools,' and in fact were officially reported to be only such. It was thought at first, that starting a School of Design in a locality, and

supplying it with sufficient funds, would have the effect of manifestly improving the manufactures of the district, and thereby tend to secure its permanent establishment. This, however, the fourteen years' experience had proved to be illusory, as, in reality, instead of the schools teaching practical designing, they merely gave instruction in the A B C of Art, as stated in Mr. Cole's address in 1852. The Department of Practical Art, therefore, at once determined to separate its functions into three chief divisions :

1st. General Elementary Instruction in Art as a branch of National Education among all classes of the community, with a view of laying the foundation for correct judgment, both in the consumer and the producer of manufactures.

2nd. Advanced Instruction in Art.

3rd. The application of the principles of Technical Art to the improvement of Manufactures, together with the establishment of Museums.

Art in Elementary Schools—Aid in Apparatus.—As a first step towards the improvement of Elementary Instruction in Art, means were taken to afford to Teachers of the *Elementary Schools*, under the Education Department, advantages for the acquisition of an increased amount of knowledge of Form, Light, and Shade, and the artistic principles of colour. It had been the practice, under the old system, to give supplies of Elementary Works on Drawing to the Masters of Schools of Design, for distribution, at their discretion, to Elementary Schools in their neighbourhood, on the understanding that the teachers of these schools were to be allowed to attend gratuitously the Art-instruction at the School of Design. This plan was open to objection, and the Department of Practical Art now arranged to give aid to the extent of 50 per cent. on the cost of certain sets of Art Examples, direct to *all Public* Schools which applied according to a printed form, and undertook the requirements of custody, &c. A Training Master was also appointed, to give instruction to the Teachers of these Elementary Schools in the use of the Art Examples. Where these Schools were situated at a distance, the Master was instructed to arrange to visit them in groups, and thus give instruction to as many places as possible.

District Elementary Schools of Art.—Besides the Art-education above referred to—which was only intended to be taken advantage

of when no better could be obtained—'District Elementary Schools of Art' were established, To form these, it was necessary that *three* existing Public Schools should have the whole of their pupils taught drawing, and undertake to pay 5*l.* each for the instruction. A proper supply of Examples was to be granted by the Department, at half cost. The locality was to find the premises, and the management was to be undertaken by a Committee, which was to engage to provide Midday Classes, at a certain fee, and Evening Classes at 6*d.* a week. Half these fees were to go to a Training Teacher, which the Department would supply, with a guarantee that his salary should amount to 70*l.* for the first year. The Course of Instruction for these Elementary Schools of Art was carefully laid down by Mr. Redgrave in his address in 1852, published in the Appendix of the Report of Practical Art. Waterford was the first school thus established.

Commencement of Certificate Allowance, &c.—This was the commencement of a general system by which payments were made to Art Masters on certificates. All the Art Schools throughout the country were regulated on fixed principles, with an annual examination, and each school was not treated as a special case. The Teachers were from this date all obliged to be certificated after undergoing a course of training, and each school was required to produce annually regular and specified works in design, &c.

Advanced Art-Instruction.—The advanced education in Art, which formed the second division of the functions of the Department of Practical Art, as above stated, was to be given by the existing Schools of Art, or, as they had been called, the Schools of Design. These it was considered desirable not to increase at present, but to make more efficient as Advanced Schools of Art-training.

Technical Art-Instruction.—The third function of the Department, viz. the application of the principles of Technical Art to the improvement of manufactures and the establishment of Museums, was also considered in the first year of the Department's history. To carry out this programme special classes were held at Marlborough House in Artistic Anatomy, Practical Construction, Wood-engraving, Painting on Porcelain, Decorative Arts in all kinds of Woven Fabrics, Paper-staining, Furniture, and Jewelry.

Lectures were also given by eminent persons, to which the public were admitted. A Museum of Manufactures was inaugurated at Marlborough House, based on purchases made from the Exhibition of 1851, out of a special vote of 5,000*l.* granted for this purpose. This formed a valuable addition to the instruction given at the Central School, and was the nucleus of the present Museum at South Kensington. The best works of the students of the various Schools of Art in the country were also exhibited, and prizes of bronze medals were awarded in competition this year for the first time.

Art Library.—The Art books, which had been collected from time to time out of the special grant of 10,000*l.* for the Schools of Design, were also catalogued, and placed under a Librarian at Marlborough House, and thus the commencement of the present Art Library at Kensington was made.

Scholarships.—Scholarships for enabling deserving students to study a longer time had been established under the old Schools of Design, but they were limited to Metropolitan students. In 1853, they were extended to all the Schools of Art, and each was increased in value to 40*l.* a year. In the same year, the Central School was removed from its original premises in Somerset House to Marlborough House.

Department of Science and Art.—Such was the commencement of the present system, and although the Department of Practical Art was enlarged into that of the Department of Science and Art in the following year, its general action in encouraging Art-instruction remained exactly as before.

Removal to South Kensington.—In 1857, the management of the Art Schools was transferred from the Board of Trade to the Committee of Council on Education, and, shortly after this, the Schools, Museum, and Library in connection with them, were again removed, and taken from Marlborough House to the buildings some of which were erected expressly for them on the estate of the Royal Commissioners of the Exhibition of 1851, at South Kensington. At this time there were 59 Local Schools of Art, with 35,333 pupils, that is, including the regular Art students as well as those who were receiving instruction in Drawing in the Public Schools. The total amount taken in fees was 8,852*l.* 17*s.* 2*d.*

Payments to Poor Schools.—The payments of 3*s.* and 2*s.* to

the teachers on the successful drawing exercises worked in poor schools, which were commenced in 1858, tended considerably to increase the general interest in Elementary Art-instruction, throughout the country.

Statistics.—In 1863, the number of Schools of Art had risen to 90, with 16,480 persons under instruction; and 79,305 children, of poor and other schools, were also being taught through their agency.

Payments on Results.—The general tendency at this time to make all descriptions of schools depend more or less on a system of payment on results, led to considerable alterations in the rules under which the Schools of Art received Government aid. The payments were in future to depend entirely on work done, and the old plan of a partial payment of a fixed certificate allowance was abolished. It had also been the custom hitherto, in most cases, for the Science and Art Department absolutely to appoint a Master to each particular school, who received his salary direct from their Financial Officer. These and other duties were in future to be left to the localities, as represented by the Committee, to whom all payments were to be made, and who consequently would dispense the grant themselves as they thought proper, subject to certain conditions. The Schools of Art, and the Art Evening Classes, which at this time existed in all parts, were thus completely changed as to administration, though the course of instruction was still as before.

Committee of 1864—Recommendations.—As might be supposed, this alteration led to great complaints and dissatisfaction on the part of teachers; so much so, that another Committee of the House of Commons on Schools of Art was appointed in 1864. The Report of this Committee recommended:—

1. That Schools of Art be left to establish themselves wherever they can take root, and to extend their operations to all classes of society, and to charge such fees as the managers may think fit.

2. That no further grants be made in aid of buildings, or of renting, or of repairing Schools of Art.

3. That no further grants be made in aid of purchasing Examples, to Schools of Art.

4. That it be a condition of Government aid, that a public examination be held annually, through the agency of a Local Committee, and no longer by a Government Inspector.

PLAN

OF THE

REFORMATORY FARM SCHOOL,

REDHILL

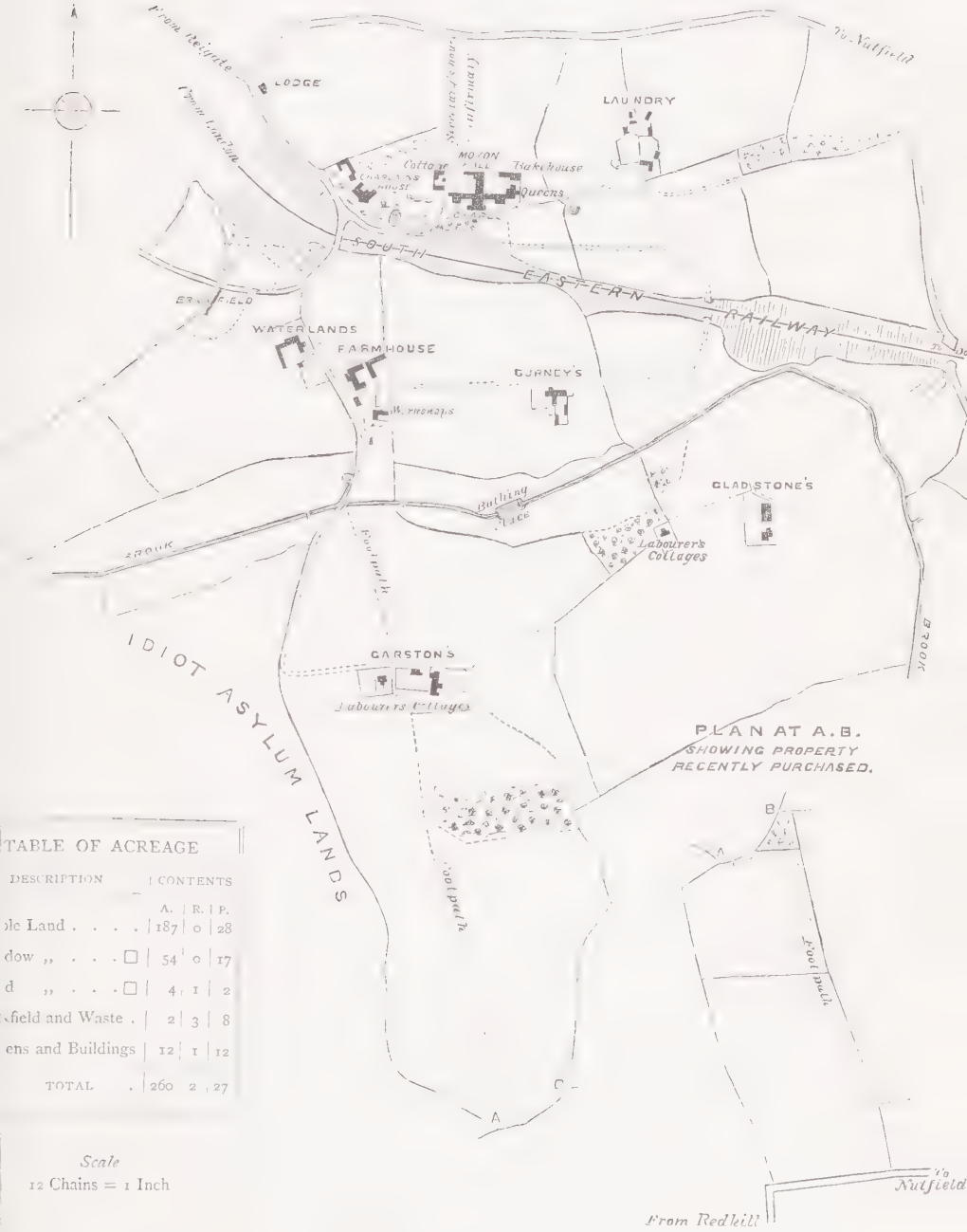


TABLE OF ACREAGE

DESCRIPTION	CONTENTS A.	R.	P.
ble Land	187	0	28
dow ,, . . . □	54	0	17
d ,, . . . □	4	1	2
field and Waste .	2	3	8
ens and Buildings	12	1	12
TOTAL .	260	2	27

Scale
12 Chains = 1 Inch

(*See* page 261)

5. That fewer prizes and no medals be given by the Central Department, after a local examination of aided Schools of Art.

Carrying out of Recommendations.— These recommendations were adopted by the Science and Art Department early in 1865, when it was laid down that Schools of Art in future should receive payments of 5*s.* and 10*s.* for every artisan student who passed in Drawing at the annual examination, according to his success. Night Art Classes were to be paid in a somewhat similar manner. To both Institutions additional sums were to be allowed for duly sending in the annual returns as they were directed; an arrangement introduced in order to encourage schools to attend to the regulations laid down by the Department. In schools for the labouring poor an offer was made of granting 1*s.* for every child taught Drawing satisfactorily, together with a further sum of 2*s.* and 3*s.* for every one who was successful at the examination.

Modifications.—These alterations, which materially reduced the aid given, were naturally viewed with greater dislike by the teachers than those which led to the agitation for a Committee of Inquiry. In consequence of repeated memorials several modifications were accordingly made in the following June. By these the Building grants, as well as the aid towards the purchase of Examples, were again allowed; and the scale of payments, which were however still to be rigidly confined to the results of teaching the artisan class, were considerably increased.

Present Statistics.— Since that time, with the exception of some changes in detail, chiefly on the subject of augmenting the payments from the State, the Schools of Art and the Art Night Classes have continued under this system. The present condition of their work may be estimated from the fact, that 117 Schools of Art are in active operation, with 20,310 pupils; together with 309 Night Classes, having 11,747 pupils in attendance. In addition to these, in the various Poor Schools throughout the country, 98,544 pupils were examined out of 148,256 under instruction in May last.

General Effect of Schools.—The influence of the Schools of Art on the country at large, associated as they have been with the Art Collections and Library now deposited at South Kensington, has been very great. It is perfectly true that much Art-training

is still required in all branches, from the most elementary to the most advanced, yet every unbiassed observer must acknowledge, that these establishments have assisted materially in raising the character of the designs in all descriptions of English Manufactures, an advance which has been so apparent from the Fine Art displays at the International Exhibitions during the last twenty years.

18. TRADE SCHOOLS.

Object and Nature.—Schools bearing this somewhat indefinite title exist in one or two places, as at Bristol and Worcester, though there are many Institutions which are doing the same kind of work, but are otherwise designated; as, for example, the Mechanics' Institution, Manchester; the Islington School of Science and Art; the Glasgow Secular School; the Liverpool Institute; the National School, Bethnal Green; and several of the Birkbeck Schools. The object of a Trade School is to prepare boys for apprenticeship to the Engineering, Building, and Manufacturing trades, by supplementing the work of the Elementary School with instruction in practical mathematics and physical science in their application to industry. In addition to these higher subjects, elementary ones also form part of the curriculum. The routine of the schools includes writing, book-keeping, the English language, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, mensuration, freehand, mechanical and architectural drawing, and the application of mechanics, physical science, and chemistry.

First Trade School.—It was in the year 1852 that the first school of this description was established. The desirability of forming Trade Schools in various important centres of industry was at that time discussed at several meetings of the Society of Arts, and at the Mansion House in London. This induced the Government to consider the matter, and the Department of Science and Art was created in the following year, having for one of its objects the development of the proposal for forming trade and such like places of instruction for the Working Classes. The schools now established by that Department, and which are considered in a separate chapter, were in some instances commenced as Trade Schools. These have now practically merged into Science Schools; the specially distinctive features, hereafter

explained, on which they were commenced, having been more or less given up. The history of Trade Schools is therefore interesting from the fact, that they led to the establishment of the existing Science School system, and must be considered with reference to, and as the forerunner of, this last scheme for advancing the scientific education of the Working Classes.

The Bristol Trade School—History.—The Bristol Trade School is so complete a type of the class of Institution under consideration, that an account of its history may not be uninteresting. It was originally, in the early part of the present century, the 'Diocesan School.' For many years it was the only elementary place of instruction in the locality; and, as such, was similar to the ordinary Parochial Church of England Schools, which existed in many parts of the country. The general advance in education, however, caused numerous other Elementary Schools to be formed in Bristol under the auspices of various religious denominations, so that the Diocesan School in the centre of this large town was comparatively neglected.

Pecuniary Difficulties at Bristol.—The endowment fortunately was not large, and the very existence of the school depended mainly on the amount received from the fees of the children in attendance. The small property standing to the credit of the Trustees was not enough to enable them to make the appointment of Master sufficiently attractive without these school-fees, and the difficulties in which they were placed, by the reduction in the number of pupils, led to their spending their capital in order to meet their annual expenditure.

Canon Moseley's Scheme.—In this dilemma the Committee requested Canon Moseley to frame a scheme, by which the school might be restored to its former prosperity. That gentleman accordingly addressed a letter to the Managers in 1853, in which he sketched out his views as to what might be done to convert it into a Trade School. His idea was that it should afford an advanced course of training for the best pupils from the National and other Elementary Schools in the neighbourhood, so that they might be induced to attend for an additional year or two in order the better to qualify themselves for their duties as artisans, &c.

Classes desired to be benefited.—Canon Moseley showed that there were 1,708 tradesmen, manufacturers, and master workmen

in Bristol whose callings required a knowledge of certain elementary principles of Science, in order to be thoroughly understood. These he divided into three classes. The first contained 18 trades, carried on by 750 persons, including architects, builders, carpenters, masons, painters, surveyors, &c., all of whom were connected with Building. The second contained 72 trades, carried on by 600 persons, including agricultural instrument-makers, anchor-smiths, chain-makers, brass-founders, engineers, gas-fitters, gun-smiths, mathematical instrument makers, millstone-makers, paper-hangers and paper-makers, saw-makers, tool-makers, toy-makers, watch and clock-makers, wheelwrights, &c. All of these occupations came under the general designation of 'Mechanical pursuits,' and required some acquaintance with the principles of Mechanism and practical Mechanics. The third contained 62 trades or manufactures giving occupation to 358 persons, such as alkali, alum, annatto-makers, artists' colourmen, firework-makers, blue and starch-makers, brewers, chemists, dyers, glass-stainers, gold-beaters, glue-makers, gunpowder-makers, looking-glass-makers, putty manufacturers, soda-water-makers, soap and candle makers, tanners, whiting-makers, &c. All of these ought to possess some knowledge of the Experimental Sciences, particularly Chemistry, with which their various trades are so intimately connected.

Consequences of Ignorance in these Persons.—Though showing what a large number of the most everyday occupations are of a scientific character, and ought consequently to be entrusted to persons specially qualified by Education to engage in them, Canon Moseley carefully guarded himself from stating that such education was absolutely essential to their pursuit. He stated, however, that if carried on without such technical knowledge, and merely, so to speak, according to a number of traditional rules of thumb, the trades themselves could not but suffer, and that too in a commercial point of view, from mistakes and accidents occasioned by the ignorance of the persons employed. It was therefore evident that, with this supply of persons eligible for instruction, a flourishing school might be maintained at Bristol almost from the fees of the pupils alone. With the further assistance of the Government aid, which had been at this time promised to a liberal extent, there could be no doubt, as Canon Moseley pointed out, but that in proper hands the School might be made a great success.

Calculations as to Expenses, &c.—Taking into consideration the number of mechanics above referred to, as well as others who might wish to attend, it was anticipated, on a very moderate estimate, that at least 150 boys would enter. The fee proposed for each pupil was 9*d.* a week, which with local subscription was considered would be almost sufficient to keep the School in working order. The staff of teachers suggested was, one Head Master at 100*l.* and apartments, and one Second Master at 80*l.* It was also calculated that the incidental expenses would amount to 40*l.*, including the cost of one or two teachers of technical terms and subjects such as the expressions in the 'Builders' Price Book,' &c. These last, it was proposed, should receive a payment of so much per lesson.

Opening by Lord Granville—Subsequent Changes.—In this way the School was started, and, as it was the first of any importance commenced under the Science and Art Department, Lord Granville—the Lord President of the Council—went to Bristol and formally opened it in 1856. Since that time it has continued to flourish, though it is not entirely carried on as originally proposed. At the commencement of the present system of Science examinations in 1860, it was one of the schools which sent in pupils at the first May competition. Each succeeding year a large number of students have been presented, and the results of the examinations have compared favourably with the work of most other schools. The grants which have been obtained in this way on the results of the instruction have very largely aided in maintaining the Institution, as the fees from the students, though raised to 15*s.* a quarter, have not been sufficient to defray expenses. The local subscriptions have considerably diminished, apparently in the same ratio as the Government payments on results have increased.

Present Division of School.—The School is now divided into two sections, one of which differs little from an Elementary School, nothing being taught except reading, writing, and arithmetic. The Upper Division, or Trade School proper, has an average attendance of fifty. No boy is admitted into this division unless he has a satisfactory acquaintance with the elementary subjects. A reference to the Time Table of this division will afford the best means of judging of the character of the instruction.

	A.M.			P.M.		
Hours .	10 to 10½	10½ to 11¼	11¼ to 12	12 to 1	1½ to 2½	2½ to 3½
Monday .	Scripture	English	Euclid	Inorganic Chemistry	Descriptive Geometry	Theoretical Mechanics
Tuesday .	,,	,,	Algebra	Organic Chemistry	Machine Drawing	Applied Mechanics
Wednesday	,,	,,	Mensuration	Inorganic Chemistry	Architectural Drawing	Experimental Physics
Thursday	,,	,,	Euclid	Organic Chemistry	Descriptive Geometry	Applied Mechanics
Friday .	,,	,,	Algebra	Inorganic Chemistry	Machine Drawing	Theoretical Mechanics

Evening Classes for Elder Students.—Evening Classes, not open to the Day Scholars, are also held for elder students. These were attended in 1870 by about 200 students, who were instructed in the following subjects:—

Subject of Instruction	No. of Pupils
Practical Plane and Solid Geometry	52
Machine Construction and Drawing	55
Building Construction	40
Elementary Mathematics	30
Acoustics, Light, and Heat	19
Magnetism and Electricity	19
Inorganic Chemistry	63
Organic Chemistry	32
Vegetable Anatomy and Physiology	19
Systematic and Economic Botany	19

Other Trade Schools.—The School at Worcester, which is of more recent origin, is carried on on a very similar plan.

Wandsworth Trade School—Scheme.—In 1856 it was proposed to establish a Trade School at Wandsworth. The subjects in which instruction was given, in addition to those of an elementary character, were as follows:

I. For those proposing to engage themselves in the Building Trades.

1. *Builders' Drawing*, or the drawing to scale, plans, elevations, and sections of buildings.

2. *Builders' Arithmetic*, or the principles upon which estimates for the cost of constructions and contracts are made.

3. *Builders' Geometry*, or the measurement of the sites, levels, workmanship, and materials of buildings.

4. *Builders' Mechanics*, or the principles of stability of structures; the selection, strength, and economical use of materials.

5. *Builders' Natural Philosophy*, or the principles of ventilation, sewerage, heat, and light, as applied to buildings, &c.

II. For those proposing to engage in Mechanical and Engineering Trades.

1. The principles of Carpentry and Scaffolding.
2. The principles of the Mechanical powers: the lever, the wheel and axle, the inclined plane, the pulley, the wedge, and the screw.
3. The principles involved in the construction of the pump, of locks, sluices, and embankments.
4. The principles of Machinery in motion.
5. The Steam-Engine.

III. For those proposing to engage in the Chemical and Manufacturing Trades.

1. Chemistry applied to manufactures and manufacturing processes.
2. Chemistry applied to Agriculture, and the properties of soils and manures, &c.

Rules for Admission—Failure.—The terms of admission to this School varied according to the position of the parents. For children of workpeople, and tradesmen not employing journeymen or assistants, the fee was 8*d.*, and for others 1*s.* a week. No one was supposed to be admitted who had not some acquaintance with the rudiments of Arithmetic, and who could not read fluently and write a fair hand. This school was not, however, very successful. It continued for about three years, but, before the end of that time, it had merged almost entirely into an Elementary School. The special teaching was altogether a failure, and in 1859 it was closed.

Combination of Navigation with Trade Schools.—The original idea of Canon Moseley was, to amalgamate Navigation Schools with Trade Schools. It was thought that the staff of teachers, particularly in Mathematics and Mechanics, would be able to assist at the instruction in both, and that by this means a considerable saving of expense and teaching power would be effected. As a matter of practical experience, however, the experiment has not proved successful.

Trade Schools and Mechanics' Institutions.—In theory, the course of study proposed to be pursued at Trade Schools is almost identical with that originally contemplated for the Mechanics' Institutions. They differed mainly in this respect, that whilst those of the Mechanics' Institution character admitted young lads in the evening after their day's work, Trade Schools were chiefly for boys during the day, devoting their whole time to study.

Need of more Schools like Bristol, &c.—The success which has attended the Trade Schools of Bristol, Worcester, and other places, now that the Government aid through the Science and Art Department has become regularly organised, might with advantage induce other Diocesan Schools, similar to that at Bristol, to follow their example, and thus utilise their small endowments. Whether the initiative be taken by the Managers of existing Institutions or not, it may be anticipated that with the advance of elementary education, regular Day Schools, having a systematic course of Science teaching, will be formed in almost every populous place, to supplement the mere elementary teaching at the Primary Schools.

19. NAVIGATION SCHOOLS.

Origin—First Schools.—About the year 1853, two Schools for the improvement of sailors were established under the Marine Department of the Board of Trade; namely, one in Liverpool and the other in London. Previously to this, a few Institutions, having a somewhat similar object, had been in operation; as for example, the one under the Trinity House at Hull, established in 1785. In the majority of instances, however, these were little more than Elementary Schools for the children of seafaring men, and did not do anything for the benefit of the adult sailor when on shore.

Work of Schools—Training of Boys.—The two Schools above referred to, under the Board of Trade, were at first chiefly engaged in preparing apprentices, mates, and masters for the examinations for certificates of competency in seamanship, as required to secure their promotion in the service. When the Science and Art Department was formed in 1853, it was determined to transfer these Schools to its management, and to make considerable changes in their constitution. In addition to the training of masters and mates, it was proposed to open schools during the day for the nautical education of boys, who intended to pursue a seafaring life, and further, to give instruction to adult sailors.

Means of supplying Teachers.—With a view of extending Navigation Schools to the chief seaport towns, based on these principles, arrangements were made with the Admiralty by which five or six Pupil Teachers who had completed their term of instruction at the Royal Naval School, Greenwich, should attend the courses in the Metropolitan Schools of Science and Art. They were there to be instructed in those sciences more especially bearing on their future duties as masters of Schools

of Navigation. In this way it was hoped that seaport towns, desirous of commencing Navigation Schools, might be provided with thoroughly qualified Teachers.

Deficiency in Elementary Education.—The great obstacle to the spread of any regular Navigation Schools, was the very deficient preliminary education of those attending the classes. Pupils came for instruction in Navigation, the very rudiments of which require some previous Mathematical and Astronomical knowledge, and an acquaintance with Physical Geography, without having even a tolerable familiarity with the first four rules of Arithmetic, or even, in many cases, being able to read and write properly. It therefore became necessary to establish a junior division, in which higher Arithmetic, Bookkeeping, Elementary Mathematics, and Physical Geography should be taught. In this way, the pupils, after being prepared in the elementary branches, were qualified to pass on to the advanced or regular scientific division of the school. Three schools were started in 1855 under this system, one at Sunderland, one at Leith, and another at Blackwall. They provided for the instruction of 98 boys, and 1,356 mates, seamen, and apprentices.

Training of Boys most important.—The fact that adult sailors obtained little beyond a mere smattering of scientific knowledge in the short and broken periods of their stay on shore, induced the Department of Science and Art, acting from a 'national point of view,' to recognise the importance of securing an attendance at Navigation Schools, of boys who were preparing to enter the sea service, rather than of adults, whose early education having been neglected, could rarely hope to acquire the science of their profession.

First Rules for aiding Navigation Teachers.—The regulations for granting assistance to Navigation Schools were settled by the Minute of February 25, 1856. This offered augmentation grants as below, up to a maximum of 50*l.*, to those Teachers who obtained certificates in one or more of the following groups of subjects, and who taught these subjects in a school under the inspection of the Science and Art Department.

Group I. A general acquaintance with the branches of Mathematics, bearing on Navigation, 5*l.*

Group II. General Navigation and Nautical Astronomy, 15*l.*

Group III. Adjustment and skilful handling of instruments, 5*l.*

Group IV. Physical Geography, 10*l.*

Group V. Physics, Mechanics, and the Marine Steam Engine, 10*l.*

Group VI. Chemistry, 5*l.*

Group VII. Natural History, 5*l.*

Group VIII. Chart, Freehand, and Mechanical Drawing, 5*l.*

Examinations for Certificates.—The examination for certificates in these subjects was to take place twice a year, in January and July, either in London or elsewhere. The system of payments of the augmentation grants was to be similar to that pursued by the Committee of Council for Elementary Schools; and no one was admitted for examination to become a Navigation Teacher, unless he had a certificate from the Committee of Council, or had passed a special examination as an Elementary Teacher.

Work confined to Cramming—Admiral Ryder.—Under these regulations the Navigation Schools continued until 1859, but their spread was not rapid, nor their action satisfactory. The adult classes for Masters and Mates were carried on under a system of 'cramming' and the instruction in the boys' schools was of the most elementary character. The number of pupils on the books in 1858 was 2,554. In that year Captain (now Admiral) Ryder, R.N., was appointed Inspector of Navigation Schools.

Alterations in Rules of Aid in 1859.—The alterations in the system of aid to Science Instruction which took place in 1859, and which are fully described in the chapter on Science Schools, were accompanied by a revision of the regulations for Navigation Schools under the Minute of July 14 of that year. By this, three classes of Navigation Masters were established, viz.:—Head, First-assistant and Second-assistant Masters. These classes were again divided into three grades, and each Teacher was placed in one or other category, according to his success at a qualifying examination held as before in January and July. The subjects were as follows:—

1. A general acquaintance with Mathematics.
2. General Navigation and Nautical Astronomy.
3. Adjustment and skilful handling of Instruments.
4. Physical Geography.

Those who passed 'first class' in all these subjects were styled First grade Head-Masters, and were qualified to earn 120*l.* per annum, paid in quarterly instalments. Others, who were

less successful, were capable of earning sums varying according to the following table :—

	1st Grade	2nd Grade	3rd Grade
Head-Master . .	120	100	80
First Assistant . .	80	70	60
Second Assistant. .	60	50	40

To these payments was added any amount of certificate allowance which a Teacher might hold from the Committee of Council on Education.

Further Regulations.—The subjects embraced under Navigation in the former regulations, viz., Physics, Mechanics, the Steam Engine, Chemistry, Natural History, Chart, Freehand, and Mechanical Drawing, were henceforth considered under the general Science Minute of June 2, and payments in addition to the above were made, on the Science Scale, to Navigation Masters who held certificates in any one or more of these subjects. Further, on the pupils of Navigation Schools who obtained prizes at the Science examinations, the Teachers thus qualified were able to claim additional payments on results, in the ordinary way, under the Science Minute. Pupil Teachers, at the rate of one to every thirty pupils, might also be appointed in Navigation Schools, and 20*l.* per annum was paid to them, on the favourable report of the Inspector, together with 6*l.* for the Teacher, as a return for the instruction imparted by him to them.

Means to secure Efficiency.—The bulk of the payment to the Navigation Schools, under these regulations, it will be remarked, was fixed, and in no way depended on the exertions of the Teachers. In order to prevent the schools degenerating, it was determined, that before they became entitled to payment, a certain minimum amount of results should be attained; thus:—

1. In schools situated in large seaport towns, each should be required to have an Evening School, with at least five apprentices.

2. In Schools for Boys, a certain number were to be sent to sea annually.

3. In Schools for Adults, a certain number of men were to have passed before the Marine Board examination.

4. In Schools for Boys and Adults, the minimum amount

was to be adjudged by the Inspector, on his visit. It was laid down as a *sine quâ non* that in future, no fresh boys should be admitted to a Navigation School under ten years of age, nor should any boy be received unless the parents were willing to give a guarantee that he would be allowed to go to sea. These regulations, however, were never very strictly carried out.

Payments on Results.—The system of payment on results began, soon after this, to be considered as the proper basis on which all schools were to be aided by public money, and although it was not thought desirable to make any change in the existing Schools for Navigation, which had so recently been called into action, yet for new ones a Minute was passed in 1860, by which the result system was introduced. This was done by a payment of 6*l.*, 4*l.*, or 2*l.*, being made for each boy who had attended at least one year, and had been apprenticed on board a ship, after having passed before the Navigation Inspector either as first, second, or third class. Also a sum of 1*l.* for every Seaman, Master, or Mate, who having received twenty lessons at least, succeeded in passing an examination at the Local Marine Board. The payments were not to exceed the Teacher's augmentation certificate allowance.

Evening Navigation Schools.—In December of this same year, a Minute was issued, for the encouragement of Evening Navigation Classes independent of Day Navigation Schools. Teachers were to qualify at an examination at South Kensington, or before the Inspector, and obtain certificates of the value either of 20*l.*, 15*l.*, or 10*l.* This was to be earned by a capitation grant for teaching an evening class. The payment, which in no case was to exceed the maximum certificate allowance, consisted of 10*s.* for each *bonâ fide* sailor, seaman, or apprentice, who attended at least 200 evenings in the year. Should any pupil of such a class obtain a prize, a further payment of 5*s.*, 10*s.*, or 20*s.* was to be made for each, according to its grade, and in this case there was no limit to the number to be paid on. A responsible committee was to be formed, and suitable premises were to be provided, in the same way as with Science Classes. This regulation, however, was taken very little advantage of.

Statistics of Schools.—After this, until 1863, little or no changes were made in Navigation Schools. They were in existence in the following places, viz., Aberdeen, Dublin, Glasgow, Hull,

Leith, Liverpool, Wells Street London, Poplar, Shadwell, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Sunderland, Waterford, and Great Yarmouth. Others, under the payments on results system, were nominally at work at Belfast, Carrickfergus, and Greenock, though their unimportant character may be judged of from the fact, that during the year 1862, the three received but 4*l.* from the public grants.

Inefficient Condition – Captain Donnelly's Report.—In consequence of the unsatisfactory condition of the Navigation Schools, in spite of the large annual salaries paid to the Teachers, a careful investigation was made in 1862 as to their working. Early in the following year, at the direction of the Science and Art Department, a Report was prepared by Captain Donnelly, R.E. It appeared from this, that their work was divisible into four heads, viz., the instruction given to—

1. Masters, Chief Mates only, and Second Mates.
2. Seamen and Apprentices.
3. Boys going to sea.
4. Others, such as Mechanics, &c. The practical results under each of these headings appeared in 1861 and 1862 to be as given in the table on the following page :—

Explanation of Table.—To judge of these figures, however, it is necessary to consider what the results amounted to, and what they really represented. In the first two classes, columns I. and II., having a total of 2,201 pupils, the instruction consisted of a mere system of 'cram,' to enable the 848 Masters and Mates to pass the Board of Trade examination. It must be understood that the Board of Trade requires Masters, Mates, &c., to pass this special examination before obtaining promotion, and in many cases considerable fees are paid by persons to be 'got through.' At each large port, there are men who make this a business, and in not a few cases receive their fees only on the passing of the pupil. The standard of acquirement, as far as Navigation and Nautical Astronomy are concerned, was at that time, and indeed even now consists of, little more than an empirical or rule-of-thumb knowledge of certain practical rules. 'Seamanship' was not, of course, taught in the schools at all, but picked up by the men on board ship. The work of the Teachers, therefore, in State-aided Navigation Schools, was thus far simply a competition with the ordinary crammers at the different ports, and as

School	I. No. of Masters, Chief Mates, only, and and Mates		II. No. of Seamen and Apprentices		No. successful at the Board of Trade Examinations in 1862	No. taking 'extra' certificates, 1862	III. Boys under Instruction. No. gone to Sea ( )		IV. Mechanics under Instruction		Amount of Aid received from the Science and Art Department	
	1861	1862	1861	1862			1861	1862	1861	1862	1861	1862
											£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Aberdeen	144	189	62	48	57	...	...	5 (3)	...	...	70 0 0	185 0 0
Belfast*	32	7	19	16	10	...	5 (5)	75 (23)	...	...	15 0 0	...
Carrickfergus*	...	...	1	3	...	...	8 (2)	32 (7)	...	...	...	...
Dublin	1	7	3	20	6	...	1 (0)	10 (9)	...	...	Paid by Irish Education Board	
Glasgow	66	103	60	20	66	...	16 (14)	19 (15)	...	...	70 0 0	70 0 0
Greenock*	...	20	...	15	12	...	...	...	...	35	...	4 0 0
Hull	...	...	...	...	...	...	161 (10)	203 (16)	...	...	228 19 11	255 0 0
Leith	72	119	73	87	84	...	11 (4)	34 (8)	29	20	100 0 0	165 0 0
Liverpool	319	292	380	347	287	...	...	...	...	...	223 0 0	223 0 0
Wells Street	57	67	189	188	98	...	...	...	...	...	95 0 0	95 0 0
Poplar	†127	†123	32	26	36	...	106	6	...	98	132 10 0	132 10 0
Shadwell	37	40	130	110	41	...	52 (4)	48	...	...	262 15 4	268 13 4
Newcastle-on-Tyne	48	39	8	11	22	...	80 (5)	64 (3)	...	...	207 2 0	200 0 0
Sunderland	183	187	32	47	115	...	141 (69)	125 (56)	106	66	256 13 2	239 3 6
Waterford	8	12	18	10	5	...	18 (8)	19 (5)	...	...	50 0 0	65 0 0
Great Yarmouth	12	9	48	39	9	...	89 (16)	95 (24)	...	...	209 4 8	185 16 8
Totals	1,106	1,214	1,055	987	848	...	688 (137)	735 (169)	135	219	1,920 5 1	2,088 3 6

* These schools are under the Payments on Results Minute of 1860.

† 60 of these were Midshipmen.

such, it was in no way the province of the Government to interfere with and subsidise it.

Boys' Schools merely Elementary Schools.—The training of boys for the sea (column III.) formed the third part of the work of the Navigation Schools. The number of scholars, as given in the above table, was small, and the proportion who went to sea insignificant. Practically, the instruction had degenerated into little more than that given at Elementary Schools. As such, it was unreasonable that a large fixed salary should be paid to the teacher, nominally for training sailors, when most of the pupils merely learned reading, writing, and arithmetic, and had no intention of ever going to sea.

Another Change of System.—In consideration of these facts, the existing regulations were cancelled by Minute of April 15, 1863, and no payments were made after December 31 of that year, on the old scale.* In future grants were offered solely on the results of instruction given in the following subjects, viz. :—

I. Mathematics.
II. General Navigation.
III. Nautical Astronomy.
IV. Physical Geography.
V. Steam.

Examination for Teachers' Certificates and for Pupils.—An examination for Navigation Certificates was held in these subjects, in November, at South Kensington, Dublin, and Edinburgh, as a continuation of the General Science Certificate examinations, and persons who wished to earn payments as Navigation Masters were required to qualify in the ordinary way. In addition to this, pupils' examinations were held as follows :—

1st. For adults, seamen, and others, four times a year, at seaport towns where Local Marine Boards were prepared to undertake them.

2nd. For youths, &c., in inland towns once a year.

Scale of Payments.—The payments to the certificated Teacher were to be 1*l.*, 2*l.*, 3*l.*, 4*l.*, 5*l.*, according to the grade of success of each pupil examined. They were made—

* This was afterwards extended by Minute of December 7, 1863. Full payments were allowed on the old scale for the quarter ending March 31, and half-payments up to June 30, 1864. The object being to afford more time for enabling the schools to carry out the new arrangements.

1st. On account of each boy who had received forty lessons and *had gone to sea.*

2nd. On each adult at sea who had received twenty lessons during the intervals of his stay on shore.

In cases where pupils were successful a second time in the same subject, the payment to the Teacher was the difference between the sum previously paid and the amount fixed for the grade of the second success. The first examination for certificates under this Minute took place in November 1863, and was attended by eight candidates—four 1st Grade, five 2nd Grade, and three 3rd Grade certificates being obtained in the various subjects.

Difference between Navigation and Science Schools.—Such were the changes made in 1863 in the Navigation School Regulations. The two chief differences between the Navigation and the Science Schools at this time were, firstly, that the pupils in the former were bound to follow a definite occupation, namely, the sea; whereas, in the latter, no similar condition was required. Secondly, that payments were made on all social classes in the Navigation Schools, whilst in those for science, no claim was admitted, except on the result of the instruction of the artisan class. The reason for this last rule was the desirability of improving the tone of the Merchant Service, and the improbability of many in a superior rank in life taking advantage of the grant when actual going to sea was requisite to obtain it.

Temporary Arrangement to assist the Change.—In order to give old schools time to adapt themselves to the new Minutes, it was decided that payments should be made to the certificated Navigation Teachers for two years, from July 1, 1864, in the following way:—

1st. For every Seaman or Mate who passed the Board of Trade examination, and who took the certificate of Mate or Master, the sum of 10*s.*

2nd. For every Mate or Master who took the 'extra' certificate, provided that he had received twenty lessons at least, the sum of 20*s.*

For the purpose of meeting the cost thus entailed, the Board of Trade set apart 1,100*l.* from fees received by that Department previous to 1853.

Close of nearly all Old Schools.—The practical effect of these

changes, in spite of the temporary assistance thus offered, was the closing of nearly all the schools which had depended on the fixed annual salary; many of the managers not even trying to work out the new system, though agreeing that the existing condition of the Institutions was unsatisfactory. The Teachers in most cases continued to earn their living by passing Masters and Mates at the Board of Trade examinations, and the greater number gave up their connection with the Science and Art Department Navigation Schools.

Assimilation of Science and Navigation School Rules.—The tendency of the regulations for Navigation Schools since 1859 had been more or less to assimilate them to those which had been growing up for aiding the spread of the principles of Science. In 1865, this was completely effected as regarded Navigation Schools; for from that time, as far as they were in connection with, and aided by, the public grants, they merged into Science Schools. The only additional advantage enjoyed by them now, is that a quarterly examination is held for the benefit of seamen, who, from being on board ship the greater part of their time, are not always able, even if they wish it, to attend at the general examination in May. The number of candidates, however, availing themselves of this opportunity has been so small, averaging only about half a dozen each quarter, that it was determined this year (1870) to abolish it unless forty persons at least presented themselves for examination.

Increase in Numbers examined.—Since the assimilation of Science and Navigation Schools, a considerable increase has taken place in the number of pupils who yearly present themselves for examination in Navigation subjects, as shown by the following table:—

Number of Pupils examined in	1864	1865	1866	1867	1868	1869	1870
Navigation	99	103	118	144	219	303	260
Nautical Astronomy . . .	70	82	77	83	86	107	68
Steam.	63	76	95	121	106	149	311

Interesting as indicating History of Science Schools.—The Navigation Schools have therefore been incorporated into the more general category of Science Schools, and the regulations which have been framed for them subsequent to 1865 are iden-

tical with those for the latter. The tendency of the action of State aid has been to encourage the inculcation of the principles of Science, rather than attempt to foster teaching in any particular trade or calling. Their history, like that of Trade Schools, is interesting more with reference to the growth of that important branch of secondary education for securing the inculcation of the principles of Science than as an essentially separate class of schools existing at the present day.

SCHOOLS UNDER THE DIRECTION

OF THE

LORDS COMMISSIONERS OF

THE ADMIRALTY.

TRAINING-SHIPS FOR THE ROYAL NAVY.

SCHOOLS ON BOARD H.M. SHIPS.

SCHOOLS FOR THE ROYAL MARINES.

DOCKYARD SCHOOLS.

SCHOOL FOR THE ORPHANS OF SAILORS.

20. THE ADMIRALTY.

General Arrangements of the Admiralty.—The educational arrangements for the Navy in its several branches—especially those for the lower ranks—are at the present time perhaps more complete than those for any other section of the public service. Provision is made for a school being attached to each ship, and for securing to such school the services of a duly qualified Teacher. Each school also enjoys the advantage of having the general superintendence of the chaplain. In this way a ship's crew, when out at sea, is provided for, in an educational point of view, in a somewhat similar manner to the private soldiers in each regiment of the Army. The arrangements differ in one respect, inasmuch as no provision is necessary for educating the children of the sailor. The seaman is always required to leave his wife and family on shore, so that the attendance of his children at school is dependent on similar chances and circumstances to those of ordinary children in their position in life.

The efficiency of the Admiralty arrangements is exemplified—

Firstly. In the means which have been taken for preventing unfit persons from entering any branch of the Navy; and

Secondly. In the provision for giving those who enter the service such a training as will qualify them in the highest degree for the various duties which they may have to perform. The details of these arrangements are given in full, in the chapters on the different schools in connection with the Admiralty.

Beneficial Effects of Changes.—The beneficial influence of the system pursued has not yet been completely felt, though it is daily manifesting itself. For a long period—and, in fact, until within the last twenty years—scarcely anything had been done by the Admiralty in the matter, but it must be owned that that Department has of late shown itself fully alive to the importance

of education, and that there is a marked contrast between the educational requirements of the sailor and marine at the present day, and those which were deemed sufficient fifty years ago.

Educational Differences in Army and Navy.—The point in which, perhaps, the greatest difference exists between the Navy and the Army Schools, to the disadvantage of the former, is, in the attendance of the sailor on his joining his ship, as compared with that of the soldier after he is thoroughly efficient in his drill. In the Army little attention is at present given to the qualifications of a man who presents himself as a recruit, provided he fulfil the physical conditions required. When, however, he has been accepted, and his instruction in drill is complete, his attendance at the Army Adult Schools, though certainly not so regular as might be desired, is fairly systematic, and his duties do not necessarily preclude it from being so. In the Navy Schools, on the other hand, the condition of affairs is somewhat reversed. Great care is taken in the selection of those who apply to be admitted to serve Her Majesty as sailors. When accepted, a complete course of training is adopted, both theoretical and practical. After a year or fifteen months, each young sailor is sent away with the elements of an excellent education, but his attendance at school after his joining a ship is usually anything but satisfactory. Circumstances, it is true, are much against him; the duties on board ship, and the numerous demands on his time, render his attendance often irregular, however much he may desire to improve himself. In this respect, the Royal Marines, while at the various stations, have great advantages over the seamen, and it would seem that they are soon likely to be the best educated and most highly trained body of men of the three branches of Her Majesty's Service.

21. TRAINING SHIPS FOR THE ROYAL NAVY.

Former Way of Recruiting the Navy.—The mode of admission into the Royal Navy has of late years been completely changed. Until within a comparatively recent period a ship's crew was got together without any regular system. Indeed ships were frequently sent to sea without their full complement of men, after having been for months in commission. Formerly, any boy who could pass the Medical examination was admitted on board, without regard to his character; and it is well known that many who from their bad conduct at home were considered incorrigible, and unfit for other employments, were sent on board a man of war as a last resource, with a view to be got rid of. No qualification as regards education was required for admission to the Navy. It was sufficient for a boy, if physically fit, to present himself, and he was accepted almost as a matter of course. In addition to these boys, in order to complete the ship's company, able-bodied seamen from the merchant service, and young fishermen were received, whenever they could be induced to offer themselves. In some instances Captains have been known personally and out of their own pockets to assist in inducing men to join the Royal Navy.

Changes in Requirements for Sailors.—It is true that in spite of all these disadvantages, the English sailor was inferior to none in the world. His natural pluck and the prestige of the Service, carried him through *the duties of war*, and he was soon able to pick up by a rule of thumb sufficient knowledge to enable him to manage one of the old-fashioned wooden line-of-battle ships. The introduction of steam, however, of scientific gunnery, and the many other complicated branches of the present service, has rendered it imperative that the future sailor shall be a highly trained and intelligent man.

Improved Means now Adopted.—Means have been adopted by the Admiralty within the last few years with a view to secure this result. With but slight expansion in certain points of detail, they appear adequate for the requirements of the Navy, as long as it is kept at its present strength. Should it be increased, a proportionate enlargement of the training system as now carried out, would no doubt take place, so convinced does the Admiralty appear to be of the importance of a systematic education amongst all who join the Navy.

Present Mode of Admission to Navy.—The entrance to the Royal Navy is now limited to boys aged between fifteen and sixteen and a half years; who are in sound health; who fulfil certain conditions as to height, weight, and circumference of chest; who can read and write; and whose character and previous conduct will bear strict investigation. At the following places recruiting stations have been established, viz:

Her Majesty's Training Ships

Impregnable,	stationed at	Devonport,
Implacable	,,	,,
St. Vincent	,,	Portsmouth
Ganges	,,	Falmouth
Boscawen	,,	Portland

Her Majesty's Ships

Fisgard,	stationed at	Woolwich
Pembroke	,,	Sheerness
Nankin	,,	Pembroke
Mersey	,,	Queenstown
Achilles	,,	Portland
Hector	,,	Southampton
Penelope	,,	Harwich
Resistance	,,	Liverpool
Invincible	,,	Hull
Audacious	,,	Dublin
Valiant	,,	River Shannon
Black Prince	,,	Greenock
Repulse	,,	Queensferry
Castor	,,	North Shields
Dædalus	,,	Bristol
Durham	,,	Sunderland

Eagle, stationed at		Liverpool
President	„	City Canal, London
Fernandez	„	West Hartlepool
Brilliant	„	Dundee
Winchester	„	Aberdeen.

And all coast-guard stations throughout the Kingdom.

Boys presenting themselves at any of these stations are first examined in reading, writing, &c. by the recruiting officer; and as to their health by some local Medical Practitioner. If approved, they are sent to the nearest Receiving Ship, where they again undergo an examination. On being finally accepted, they and their parents have to give a written undertaking to their being entered and bound to serve Her Majesty as Sailors. Their services are thus secured from that moment, and they cannot afterwards obtain a discharge, until they arrive at the age of twenty-eight. They remain on board the Receiving Ship until the next opportunity occurs for their being forwarded to the nearest Training Ship.

Care Bestowed on Selection.—The greatest care is bestowed on the selection of these boys; and the Royal Navy is no longer an asylum for good-for-nothing lads. The service has become so changed, that in proposing to send a boy into it, the question considered by his parents and himself, is whether he will be accepted, rather than as formerly whether he will be so obliging as to enter. When boys are once received, under no consideration are they allowed to be released from their engagement. They have to continue in the service, even if it should afterwards turn out that they have made such a mis-statement as to their age, &c., as would have debarred them from entrance, had the truth been known at the time.

Classes of Boys—Payments—Badge Boys.—In each Training Ship, the boys are divided into two classes. On joining, they are called Second Class Boys; and before they can rise to the First Class, they must be at least sixteen years of age, and have been not less than twelve months on board. In this upper division, they each receive a payment of *7d.* a day; *6d.* being the amount paid to the second class. To those who give great attention to their duties, and pass a *qualifying* examination in Seamanship, Gunnery, and School work, a badge is awarded. These are called Badge Boys, and although the distinction does not give the holder at present any extra pay, yet it confers on him certain

advantages. He enjoys the privileges of a Petty Officer; extra liberty when on shore, and exemption from dirty work, and such employments as sweeping and cleaning the decks, &c. The question as to Badge Boys receiving extra pay is however now before the Admiralty. It is proposed to allow 5 per cent of the boys 2*d* a week extra, and to permit them to carry their badges and pay into sea-going ships until rated ordinary seamen; when they arrive at this rank they would then, if this proposal be carried out, start afresh, and earn any new distinction according to future merit.

Division of Work on Training Ships.—The work on board each Training Ship may be divided into two branches.

1. The School duties; and
2. The practical training and instruction in those occupations which will form the duties of the boy when he joins a sea-going ship.

School Work.

Superior Officers.—This is conducted by the Head Master and his assistants, but the Chaplain and Naval Instructor have a general control over the educational arrangements. At the examinations, which are held quarterly, the Chaplain is responsible for determining the question of promotion from one class to another, according to results. He also recommends to the Captain those boys whom he considers are deserving of rewards.

Divisions in the School.—The School duties form but a small part of the work of the boys. This cannot be wondered at, considering the numerous occupations which will presently be described, all of which have to be got through in from twelve to fifteen months.* Each boy, as already stated, must be able to read and write, before he can be admitted. These qualifications, however, scarcely extend beyond ability to read words of one syllable, and a very elementary amount of writing. The School is divided into four divisions, which are quite independent of the two classes of boys on board. In some cases, First Class boys may be in the lowest or fourth division of the School, and vice versâ.

Subjects of Instruction—Progress.—The subjects taught are Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic, with the addition of Geography

* The standard of intelligence on entering having much increased, a large number of boys now get through the whole course with *full numbers* in 12 months.

in the highest division. The attendance amounts to between fifteen and seventeen hours a month for the two upper divisions, and for the two lower divisions, just double this time is required. The progress of the boys is greater than might be anticipated, considering the limited periods devoted to School work. They have the great advantage of entering the School with at least some elementary knowledge of Reading and Writing. Moreover their attention to each lesson is regular, and rarely broken except on account of ill health.

Inspections.—Four times a year the Captain of the Impregnable, who is also the Inspector of Training Ships, and in charge of the recruiting, makes a searching examination into every department in each ship, and her Brig tender. He devotes two days to this inspection. Clothes and bedding are examined and mustered. All exercises and drills are gone through in succession, and the upper boys undergo a close *viva voce* examination in all subjects they are instructed in; and the Brig's crew are examined in evolutions *at sea*.

At these examinations also, the type of boy sent in from each recruiting district is particularly noted. In addition to this, four times a year the officers of the School examine the boys in book work, and twice a year the Inspector of Navy Schools, Dr. Woolley, holds an independent examination, and reports the result direct to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty. The sum allowed by the Admiralty for school materials, amounts to 3*l.* 7*s.* 4*d.* per quarter for each hundred boys, in addition to a grant for the purchase of all necessary school books. Prizes also of a certain value are allowed for, in the annual grants to the ships.

The Training Work.

Most Important Branch—Divisions.—This is the more important branch of the young sailor's education, and it necessarily forms by far the larger part of the daily routine. The training includes all branches of practical work which can be required of a sailor, and every effort is made to enable the lads to understand the rationale of the various actions they are taught to perform. The work divides itself into two branches, namely, Seamanship and Gunnery.

Instruction in Seamanship.

This includes instruction in every occupation which a sailor has to perform in connection with a ship. It also embraces the acquiring of a familiarity with every part of the vessel and her rigging. The names and uses of the masts and yards; knotting and splicing; the use of the palm and needle; the compass; the bow lights; heaving the lead; bending and unbending sails; the management of boats; steering by compass; and all the various niceties of rigging; also the way to reef and furl; to make, shorten, and shift sails; and the meaning of the various words of command. To carry out the instruction in these numerous subjects the boys are divided into sections, each under a regular teacher. The lessons are short, lasting not more than three quarters of an hour, as experience shows that better results can be obtained by frequent changes than by wearying the boys too long with one subject. The way in which, at the word of command after six months' training, the boys mount the rigging, unfurl the sails, or lower the topgallant masts, could hardly be surpassed in quickness or precision by a crew of able-bodied sailors. Some of the boys are taught the flags and the various systems of signalling, and not a few become very expert in this important branch before leaving the ship. All are required to be able to swim before they go to sea.

Training Brigs.—In order to perfect the boys in the management of both rowing and sailing boats, a number of different descriptions is attached to each Training Ship. Training Brigs are also provided. These are placed under the command of a Lieutenant, and cruise daily, except in the winter, with a party of the boys, who are required to perform all the work, under an experienced sailor. When the weather is favourable the Brigs are sent to sea for a fortnight at a time, in order to accustom the boys to real sea work. Only those who have been at school for six months are thus exercised. Each boy's continuance in the Brig is limited to two months, after which he has to return to the Training Ship for further drill as a preparation for sea service.

Carpenters.—Boys who have been accustomed to carpentering, or who show an aptitude for this occupation, are formed into a special class with the view of making them Ships' Carpenters. They generally number about one hundred, and for convenience, a small ship (the *Circe*) has been fitted up as a workshop, and is attached to the *Impregnable* at Devonport.

The Gunnery Instruction.

This is conducted with great attention, and each boy is required to go through the complete course. The training is divided into four sections.

1. The Handspike drill, and manning both sides.
2. Pointing, Sponging, and Loading. Rifle drill.
3. Pointing (extreme training), Dismounting and Mounting. Sword exercise.
4. Independent firing; quick and broadside firing; shifting breechings, trucks, and trigger lines; bow and quarter firing; and securing a lower deck gun.

At page 112 an illustration is given of some of the seamanship and gunnery instruction as carried on on board H.M.S. *Impregnable*.

Practical Gunnery Instruction—Insufficient. On leaving the Training Ship about half the boys go through a course of Practical Gunnery, in order to enable them to aim and to accustom them to firing shot and shell. For this purpose a ship has been specially fitted up for their use. Owing, however, to want of sufficient accommodation, nearly half are at once sent to their duties on board ship, and do not receive this instruction. No doubt before long arrangements will be made to give this great advantage to all as part of their regular training.

Constant Application of Boys.—From the brief outline which has been thus given of the various occupations provided for the boys, it is evident that they have enough to do during their training. The whole of their time is indeed devoted to some sort of education, but the course of instruction is so diversified, that one branch, such as rowing or drill, really acts as a recreation to another, such as school work. The health of the lads is a sufficient proof that the work, as arranged, is not too much for them.

Expenditure of Boys—Holidays.—As before stated, the boys in the Second Class receive a payment of 6*d.* a day, and those in the first class 7*d.*, in addition to their rations. Out of this sum, they are allowed 3*d.* a week in cash, and part of the remainder is applied towards the purchase of their clothes. With economy, many of the boys save from twenty to thirty shillings in the year, after allowing for all charges. This amount is at their own disposal, and is generally devoted to paying for extra luxuries

in food, amusements, bats, balls, &c., and expenses during holidays. These holidays are granted four times a year, and consist of a fortnight at Easter, Midsummer, and Michaelmas, and three weeks at Christmas. On these occasions nearly all the boys go home, and from their healthy look, their attractive uniform, and their general bearing, they are so noticed by other boys, that the recruiting officer finds little difficulty in enlisting volunteers, who flow in with unusual rapidity for a few weeks after each holiday.

Religious Instruction.—The religious teaching of the Training Ships is conducted by the Chaplains. A short service, consisting of a hymn, a portion of Scripture, and prayer, is conducted twice daily, before the officers and boys belonging to the Church of England, who are assembled on the deck for that purpose. The Roman Catholics and those in connection with the various dissenting denominations are allowed to go on shore to receive instruction from their own ministers, whose attendance on board, for obvious reasons, is discountenanced.

Cost of the Training System.—The cost of the Training Service is considerable; the expense per head being at least 45*l.* per annum. As each remains, on an average, fifteen months, it is evident that, to educate a really useful sailor, involves an outlay of about 60*l.* Looking at a Training Ship as a School, this is, perhaps, somewhat high, but it must be remembered that the subjects taught are much more numerous than those attempted in an ordinary School. To produce the results so quickly, a large staff is required, and the whole system, from the moment a boy enters, until the day he leaves, may be said to be at high pressure. The annual cost per head would be less, though the general outlay would be far greater, and the service less efficient, if the staff were so reduced, that each boy had to remain a longer time before he accomplished the same work.

Discipline—Flogging—Theft.—Little or no difficulty is experienced in maintaining discipline on board the Training Ships. Flogging is resorted to but rarely, and only in cases of theft, or such-like disgraceful conduct. The necessary regulations give facilities for theft to those who are disposed to be dishonest, for at the sound of the bugle for drill, every boy on board has to

leave whatever he may be about, and attend instantly at the required place of rendezvous. Besides this, as there are no locks and keys on board a ship, everything is always open, and a thief becomes a public enemy—and is most severely punished if discovered. There is, it is fair to add, very little thieving indeed.

Scene at Dinner.—It is very interesting to see the boys assemble at dinner. Some are told off as captains of the mess, and they have to lay out the table with mess traps, &c., and apportion to each one his share. To prevent them giving an unfair quantity to any one, and taking too much themselves, a rule is established, that any boy has a right to change his portion with that one which the captain of the mess has set apart for himself. At 12 o'clock, as soon as the bugle sounds, all repair to the mess-room, where they stand round the tables, and the senior boy at each says grace. Directly this is concluded, the bugle again sounds, and they then arrange themselves all over the deck, just as they fancy. Some make up parties in a corner on the floor, others remain at the tables, and others perch themselves on any spot they can find, or squat on coils of rope with their mess before them. The whole appearance of the gathering is most picturesque.

Reading Rooms—How Provided—Recreations.—Two libraries are provided on board each Training Ship; one presented by the Admiralty, and another purchased out of a fund raised by deducting 3*d.* a month from each boy's pay. This fund is superintended by the Chaplain. Newspapers and other periodicals are also supplied out of it for the boys' use. Books may be borrowed, but not taken away from the ship. After hours, the school room is used as a reading-room; and, in the winter, a weekly lecture, illustrated by magic lantern, takes place, and games of skittles, boxing, balls, quoits, draughts, &c., are encouraged. A boy band is trained in each ship, from which the bands of the sea-going ships are recruited, and a fiddler is allowed, with a view 'to give those who desire it, the opportunity of dancing, and also to promote general cheerfulness.'

Sanitary Condition.—The most rigid precautions are taken to prevent the spread of disease. On admission, every boy is carefully examined, and should the slightest symptom of ill-health manifest itself at any time, the patient is sent at once to the hospital. Every part of the ship is kept scrupulously clean,

and is limewashed repeatedly. On board the *Impregnable* a current of air is made to pass continuously over every portion of the decks. The hold is kept empty and free from all accumulation of lumber, in order that it may be frequently limewashed. The health of the boys is generally very good. Many who on admission look more or less delicate, exhibit a marked change for the better in their appearance before they have been on board many weeks.

Efficiency of the System—Conclusions.—The system at present in force for educating the future Navy of this country has thus been very briefly sketched out. There are many authorities who consider that more advantages might be secured by converting Greenwich Hospital into one large Training Institution. However this may be, it is evident that with but one or two slight improvements, which experience may suggest, the Training Ships, when properly conducted and supplied with efficient and carefully selected officers, are most valuable institutions. So complete indeed may they become in a year or two, that there is every prospect that our sailors will be as highly trained and educated a class of men as the schools at Deal promise to make our Marines. That is to say, they will be fit for the duties they will be called upon to perform, and equal to any emergency that is ever likely to arise. No other service can at present boast of any such organised system of education. The only suggestion which presents itself is, whether without greater care and considerable changes in the present system of education, the officers in the Navy will not in but too many instances be really below the men in practical knowledge and systematic training.

22. SCHOOLS ON BOARD HER MAJESTY'S SHIPS.

Schoolmasters on Board Ship.—For many years some provision has been made on board the larger men-of-war, such as Flagships and First and Second Rates, for the education of the boys belonging to the crew. For these ships, a Schoolmaster was generally included among the staff of Petty Officers. His nominal duties were to give instruction to the boys at certain hours during the day; and in the evening to attend to those men who wished to avail themselves of the opportunity afforded for improvement. As a matter of fact, however, the Schoolmaster's work was very nominal, and in not a few instances amounted to little more than keeping up the officers' Logs and Watch bills, and helping in any clerical work that might be required on board.

Origin of System—Deficient Condition.—It is difficult to arrive at the date at which this plan was commenced, but it evidently originated very many years ago, and was possibly in operation at the commencement of the present century. As with the Regimental Schools in the Army, whose efficiency at that period was almost entirely dependent on the energy and ability of the Commanding Officer, so the character of the instruction given on board ship, and even the appointment of a Master, depended almost entirely on the interest taken in educational matters individually by the Captain. The Schoolmaster was at this time inducted into his office without having had any previous training or possessing any special aptitude for the work of teaching. The selection for the post rested entirely with the Captain, and, usually, one of the crew, who, in his judgment was the most eligible, was appointed to fill it. It often happened that a man who was hardly fit for any of the regular work of the ship was on that account made Schoolmaster, if he only

knew his letters. With such a system it may readily be understood that the improvement of the boys and sailors on board was not satisfactory; nor was the work of the school looked upon as a very important part of the day's duties. It is probable that considerable impetus was given to the work of education in the Navy by the interest taken throughout the country in the cause of Popular Education from 1808 to 1812, resulting principally from the labours of Dr. Bell and Joseph Lancaster.

Improvements in 1862.—Since 1862, however, much improvement has taken place. At that date, the system of appointing Trained Masters on board all sea-going ships, came into force. All who had previous to that date been doing duty as Schoolmasters were then ordered to undergo an examination at one of the Training Colleges, and on their failing to present themselves or to come up to the required standard, they were deprived of their appointment, and either left the Navy or went into other lines, such as the ship's Steward, Police, &c. This gave the Schoolmaster a regular standing; his calling being recognised as a branch of the service. He now receives his appointment after having passed through a regular Training College, and obtained a certificate of competency from the Committee of Council.

Mode of Obtaining Teachers—Payments.—The Admiralty never attempted to train their own teachers, but always appointed those who thought fit to volunteer from the ordinary Normal Colleges in the country. Before being accepted, the candidates were subjected to the regular Medical examination, and if passed, were bound to serve Her Majesty in the capacity of Naval Schoolmasters for a certain period, viz., ten years from date of entry. The scale of payment for Schoolmasters, in addition to the ordinary allowance for rations, is fixed as follows:—

	£	s.	d.	
On Appointment . . .	73	0	0	per annum
After 3 years' service . .	82	2	6	,,
6 ,, ,, . .	91	5	0	,,
9 ,, ,, . .	100	7	6	,,
12 ,, ,, . .	109	10	0	,,

Change in Mode of Supplying Teachers—To come from Greenwich.—Within the last few months the plan of training Schoolmasters has been somewhat changed. In future, promising boys from the Greenwich School, and from it alone, are to be sent as Pupil Teachers to one of the Training Ships, described in another chapter. When they have gone through the regular course of instruction there provided, for three years, they are to be sent

to an ordinary Training College for two years, at the charge of the Admiralty. The pupils themselves are to receive a salary at the rate of 23*l.* per annum during that time. When they have completed their period of instruction, they will then be appointed direct as Navy Schoolmasters. This change, will, it is hoped, enable them to acquire the habits and feelings necessary for a life on board ship, at an earlier age, and more efficiently, than they could under the old plan.

Branches of School Work—Chaplain.—The educational work at present carried on on board sea-going ships, is conducted by the trained Teachers above referred to, under the superintendence of the Chaplain. It divides itself into three branches, namely:—

The Boys' School.
The Adult Evening School.
The Sunday School.

The Boys' School.

Admiralty Regulations.—This is limited to the lowest rank on board, that is, to those of the crew styled 'boys.' They are obliged to attend the instruction, which is gratuitous, as long as they continue in their rank of 'boys.' The time they thus have to devote to school work is necessarily subject to the varying requirements of the ship. The Admiralty orders are that each boy shall attend school at least three half days each week. In order that this shall disturb the arrangements on board as little as possible, the boys are divided into two watches, each of which takes its turn to be at school. The Admiralty allows a sum of 1*l.* 10*s.* per quarter, for each ship for stationery, &c., and supplies of lesson books are furnished when required. The subjects of instruction are Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic; with Geography to the upper boys. Doubtless the standard of instruction afforded will gradually be raised, when the training system through which the boys now have to pass before going to sea has been longer in operation.

Occasional Difficulties in Attendance—Influence of Captain.—A good deal of difficulty is felt in securing the regular attendance of the boys; not because they themselves object to going to school, but because the numerous duties on board render it impossible at times to prevent interruptions. Besides this, the

boys are more or less immediately under the Petty Officers, whose orders they are required to obey. As the ship's work is necessarily the first consideration, it is easy to understand that plausible reasons may be alleged for requiring the services of the boys, when they ought to be attending school. If the boys' time is thus unnecessarily taken up, however, the Chaplain generally complains to the Captain. Here, as in the Army and under the old system, it will be seen that very much must depend on the Captain's estimate of the value of the instruction. If he care but little for it, the excuse that the ship's duties are paramount may be so often allowed as to render the school almost inoperative, but if he believe in the importance of education, it is usually not difficult for him to arrange the work under ordinary circumstances of weather &c., so as to allow time for the boys to attend their classes. The same dependence on the Captain is experienced with reference to the accommodation for the school-room, which is generally at best rather limited as to its area.

The Adult Evening School.

General Mode of Conducting.—This is conducted also by the Navy Schoolmaster, who receives a salary from the Admiralty, and is not allowed to take any fee from the men. The hours are from six to half past seven every evening but Saturday and Sunday, except when the exigencies of the ship's work require the services of the crew. No one is obliged to attend. As a rule those of the ship's crew usually avail themselves of the instruction who know that their hopes of promotion depend on their improvement in Reading and Writing, and who find themselves deficient. They are aware that without further knowledge of these matters they would be unable to perform the duties of a higher rank. No regular classes are carried on, but the instruction is generally arranged according to the requirements of each individual pupil. One man works at Arithmetic, another at Writing, and so on. The Admiralty pays the cost of lighting and heating, but does not allow any aid towards the purchase of school material for these evening classes.

The Sunday School.

General Regulations.—This is carried on for the boys only. One hour is devoted during the day to general religious instruc-

tion and Bible history. The Roman Catholic boys and others who do not belong to the Church of England are not required to attend, but upon the others attendance is compulsory. This branch is more immediately under the charge of the Chaplain, who, as before stated, is also actively engaged in the duties of the Week-day School.

Conclusion.—The general provisions made for the improvement of the sailor after he has entered Her Majesty's service, though not as complete as could be desired, nor taken advantage of as they should be, yet they are usually sufficient to secure to all who wish to improve themselves ample means of doing so, and that free of any cost. When the present plan of giving instruction to all who enter the Navy has been established a few years longer a complete change may be anticipated in the educational aspect of the sailor. It may further be presumed that as education advances throughout the country generally it must follow as a necessary consequence that the instruction at these schools will be of a higher character, and in conformity with the degree of education with which all sailors will then, it is hoped, commence their career.

23. ROYAL MARINE SCHOOLS.

Object of Marine Schools.—The Marine Schools form a branch of the Educational machinery of the country, created by the Admiralty for the improvement of the non-commissioned officers and men of the Royal Marines, and for the education of their children.

Early Origin.—Although they have been carried on for many years, no definite record seems to exist of the early history of these schools or of the way in which they were originated. From all accounts they were probably at first Elementary Schools started for the benefit of the children of the Corps of Marines, each one depending chiefly on the interest taken in it by the Commanding Officer for the time being. They are now conducted in a most systematic manner, and attendance at them forms a part of the duties of some of the men. They are entirely under the management and subject to the control of the Admiralty and the whole cost, both of Staff and inspection, is defrayed by the public votes to that Department.

Commencement of Inspection—Changes in the System.—Up to the year 1853 no regular system of inspection existed, in fact the schools were entirely dependent on the energy of each division, and consequently varied materially in efficiency. Since that time, and up to 1861, they were inspected by the Education Department, and for five years Annual Reports on their working were published in the Blue Books containing accounts of all the Elementary Schools of the country. In 1861 the entire charge of inspections as well as of superintendence of these Marine Schools was handed over to the Admiralty, and since then, as in the case of the Dockyard Schools, no reports have been issued.

Condition of Schools in 1853.—The state of the schools in 1853 may be judged of from a Report by Dr. Woolley issued in 1857. From this it appears that at that time there was a great want of school books and apparatus. There was also an entire absence of uniformity in the regulations under which these schools were governed, and in the salaries received by the Masters, who were usually non-commissioned officers, or persons having other employment unconnected with the corps. In one instance Dr. Woolley reported that the Teacher's salary had been reduced by 20*l.* by the order of the Commandant, without any reason being assigned. It was then the practice for the non-commissioned officers and men to pay a small fee for the instruction out of their private funds, and these payments were not fixed by any rule, but varied considerably at the different stations. The Girls' Schools were also reported on as being, without exception, in a very inefficient condition; in the majority scarcely any book except the Bible was used for giving instruction in reading. This state of things was accounted for by the salary of the Mistress averaging but 21*l.* per annum, a sum not likely to attract a very well qualified person, and it appeared that the selection was usually made more with regard to the services of the young woman's husband or father than on account of her own fitness to conduct a school.

Improvements in 1857.—This unsatisfactory working of the different branches of the schools was very much changed by the Army School Regulations of July 1857. By these, it was determined that the Divisional Schoolmasters should be Marines, selected for their ability, after they had undergone a course of training at the Royal Military Asylum, Chelsea. Their pay and position, as well as those of the Schoolmistresses, were also to be improved, and a liberal allowance of books and materials was in future to be supplied to each school. The teaching power had been in most instances very deficient, and every effort was made by the Inspector to organise a system of Assistants and Pupil Teachers, to work under the new-trained Masters, in order to supersede the then existing plan of unpaid Monitors, which has always proved a failure.

Statistics of Schools—Insufficient Accommodation. The numbers attending these schools in 1857, were 300 boys, and 800 adults; the latter consisting of 528 privates, 49 drummers, and 223 non commissioned officers. The attendance in the Girls' Schools is

not contained in the report. An evil which all the schools seem to have laboured under since their origin, and which is still felt, was strongly reported on by Dr. Woolley in 1853, namely, the insufficiency of accommodation.

Difficulties with Training Teachers—Improvements.—The mode of training teachers above referred to, at the Royal Military Asylum, was found, however, not to succeed. In the first place, accommodation could only be provided for three to study at a time, and owing to the difficulty of tracing the antecedents of the privates selected for teachers, there was little or no guarantee that they possessed the moral qualities essential for a Schoolmaster. As a matter of practical experience, it was found that many of those who on enlisting were the best educated, and who consequently were the most likely to be selected for training, turned out eventually to have something discreditable in their character quite unfitting them for the position of a Schoolmaster; a large proportion having joined the Army in the hope of being quit of their private difficulties. The plan now adopted, and one which appears to answer satisfactorily, is that of appointing a student who has been brought up as a teacher at one of the ordinary Training Colleges. By this means a guarantee of qualification and character is secured.

Rank of Marine Schoolmasters—Inequalities of Pay.—Considerable ill-feeling existed among the Marine Schoolmasters a few years back, from the fact that their rank and pay were inferior to those in corresponding employment in the ordinary Army Schools. They ranked with, instead of above, the Serjeants, and their uniform was identical with that of the Assistant-Schoolmasters in the Army. Moreover their fixed pay was the *minimum* amount allowed to their more fortunate brethren. Dr. Woolley, in his reports, several times drew attention to these grievances, and urged that all Schoolmasters should be put on one footing, as more likely to improve the status of the teacher, and the efficiency of the schools. His suggestions were carried out in 1863. He further urged, that the remuneration should be made to depend to a certain extent on the result of the teaching, as shown by the Report of the Inspector at his yearly visit.

Infant Schools.—Infant Schools in connection with those for girls, do not appear to have existed to any great extent before 1860. Their importance was touched upon in the Inspector's

report, and the consequence has been, that this essential addition has since been made to all the Marine School Establishments.

Divisions of Marines.—There are at the present time three divisions of Royal Marine Light Infantry; one stationed at Plymouth, another at Chatham, and the third at Gosport. In addition to these, there are the Royal Marine Artillery at Portsmouth, and the Recruit station at Deal. At each of these places, complete Marine Schools are in operation. These may be divided into the *Children's Schools* and the *Adults' Schools.*

The Children's Schools.

Similar to National Schools, but confined usually to Marines' Children.—These are subdivided into Infants', Girls', and Boys', as in an ordinary National School. As a rule, only the children of Marines in active service are admitted; though exceptions are made in favour of orphans of men who have served in the corps, as well as those of pensioners. At Deal also, on account of the small number of Marines' children living there, some of those of the Coast-Guard are allowed to attend. The course of instruction is similar to that of the ordinary Primary Schools. The general regulations differ only so far that the whole cost is paid out of the Admiralty vote, and that the Inspection is now conducted by an Officer appointed by, and acting under, that Department. The salaries of the Teachers are made up, partly by fixed payments from the Admiralty, and partly by the fees from the children.

Children's Fees.—These children's fees are much lower than those paid in ordinary Primary Schools, being usually 3*d.* a-month. The attendance is not compulsory; nevertheless as the children all belong to the men of the division stationed at the barracks where the schools are held, little difficulty is experienced in inducing them to attend with regularity. The beneficial indirect authority of the superior officers, is generally sufficient to secure that each child's education is not neglected.

Importance of these Schools.—At the three Marine Stations, these Juvenile Classes form a very important branch of the Marine Schools, from the large number of children who attend them. At Plymouth no fewer than 212 Infants, 102 Girls, and

204 Boys are under daily instruction. At Deal, however, this is not the case. The station is entirely for recruits, who are of course unmarried, and the Primary Schools are, therefore, only needed for the children of the few Marines who are required to superintend and manage the establishment. Hence the relaxation in allowing the Coast-Guard to take advantage of the classes for their families.

The Adults' Schools.

All Non-Commissioned Officers must attend until they qualify.—These form the special feature of Marine Schools. Every non-commissioned officer of Marines is obliged to attend until he has passed and received the certificate of the 2nd class. The qualifications for this certificate are: the ability to read well in the 4th Irish Book of Lessons; to write accurately twelve or fourteen lines of dictation; and to show a fair knowledge of Arithmetic up to, and including, Proportion, Interest, and Practice. The hours devoted to study, viz.: one hour and a half every day but Saturday, is part of the men's free time. No school fee is now charged, though up to 1863, a payment of one shilling a month was exacted from the men's allowance, in spite of the attendance being compulsory.

The Attendance of Private Marines.—The private Marines are not compelled to attend the schools; every encouragement, however, is held out for them to do so; and a large number avail themselves of the privilege very regularly. The fact that the possession of a 2nd-class certificate is required of all non-commissioned officers, naturally acts as a strong incentive for the privates to endeavour to obtain this distinction, while in the lower rank. Although the holding of a certificate is not a *sine quâ non* for promotion, still its possession by a private is a sure means of increasing the chance of his more rapid advancement in the corps.

Number who further continue their Studies.—Those holding the 2nd-class certificate are encouraged to continue at the school, in order to obtain the 1st-class certificate; not a large number, however, avail themselves of this, as it does not lead to any particular advancement.

Royal Marine Artillery.—The Royal Marine Artillery is recruited chiefly from the Royal Marines, and is, as it were, the

cream of the service. The same requirement of attending school is enforced on the non-commissioned officers, who are compelled to pass a still more difficult examination than the non-commissioned officers of Marines. Besides this, all the gunners must attend the schools until they have qualified at an examination similar to that for a 2nd-class certificate, except that the Arithmetic is limited to the Compound rules.

Deal a Receiving Station, and Training Institution.—The establishment at Deal serves as a Training Institution for recruiting the various divisions of Marines. As soon as a man volunteers for this corps, and is accepted, he is at once sent to Deal. Here he undergoes a regular course of training for six months. Drilling, Gymnastics, and School-work all form essential portions of the daily routine. The time devoted to the mental part of the Education, is, however, not very long, being but nine hours each week, namely, two hours on Monday, Tuesday, Thursday, and Friday, and one hour on Wednesday. A large proportion of these recruits are so ignorant that scores are not able to read or write even their own names. The value of the system pursued here may be estimated by the fact that in spite of the limited time devoted to it, in the six months a large proportion are enabled to read fairly an easy book, and to have some idea of writing. All manage at least to sign their own names.

Statistics, &c., of the Deal Establishment.—The number of men stationed at Deal comprises some eight or nine hundred of these recruits. Their minimum age is supposed to be nominally eighteen years, but many are found to be really not so old. Their instruction is conducted by a Superintending Schoolmaster, who holds a commission, and ranks as an Ensign. Under him is a staff of three Trained Schoolmasters, and a certain number of soldier assistants. These men are usually non-commissioned officers, and sometimes privates, and the number employed in this way varies with the number of recruits; being fixed by the Army Regulations. At the present time there are twelve thus engaged. The detachment is divided into sections, each attending at a different hour, and the whole together forms probably the largest School of Adults in the country.

Importance attached to Gymnastic Exercises.—Gymnastics are systematically taught at Deal, and form quite a feature in the

mode of educating a raw recruit. A building has been specially erected for the purpose, and every one goes through the course under a regular Instructor. The lesson is popular, and in the evenings, when the attendance is voluntary, the room is usually full. Even at these times no one is allowed to exercise without the presence of the Instructor.

General Efficiency of the System.—The general system of training in the Marines would seem to leave little to be desired; though the teaching power of the Schools both at Deal and at the several stations, is perhaps deficient, and the accommodation for the pupils might with advantage be somewhat enlarged. It must, however, certainly be conceded, that the provision afforded by the State for improving the educational condition of this body of its servants is very complete. On the recruit enlisting, he is at once made to attend school for six months, during which period and afterwards, should he continue his attendance, everything is provided for him free of expense. He is encouraged, and indeed obliged, to prolong his study, as his chance of promotion mainly depends on his having taken advantage of the instruction. With such an educational system leavening the whole of this large and important branch of the Navy, much permanent good must be manifested, and the condition of the Marine Establishment as it at present exists, has already benefited largely by these advantages.

24. DOCKYARD SCHOOLS.

Origin and Purpose.—This class of school has been established by the State, for the sole benefit of the apprentices employed in the Royal Dockyards. Its origin may be traced to a circular letter, addressed by the Lords of the Admiralty to the Superintendents of the Woolwich, Sheerness, Devonport, and Pembroke Dockyards, about the middle of 1843.

Object of Schools.—This letter set forth that the Lords of the Admiralty, after considering measures for the distribution, employment, and control of the apprentices, had determined to establish schools in order to secure to them the benefit of both a religious and professional education. They also considered that the standard of such instruction should not be set too high, particularly at first, but should at the same time be such as to give scope for a display of remarkable talent in any individual student.

Conditions of Entrance.—While thus taking precaution that the instruction given should not be such as to induce those who had passed through the schools to leave the public service in consequence of their education enabling them to obtain employment in a better market, it was also considered desirable to prevent the schools declining into places of mere elementary instruction. A condition was therefore imposed on all candidates for apprenticeship, that they should be able to read and write, and be acquainted with the first four rules of Arithmetic. None was eligible to enter who was under fifteen years of age; and inasmuch as the greater number of the applicants were the children of skilled artizans employed in the dockyard, and in the receipt of good wages, it was considered inexcusable neglect if at that age any were presented without this amount of elementary instruction.

Regulations for Attendance—Subjects for Instruction.—All the apprentices were required to attend the school every afternoon, for a certain number of hours (about fifteen a week). A portion of this time was allowed from the workshop occupation; the remainder coming out of their hours of leisure. Each school was divided into five classes. All, without regard to age, were to attend the lowest three classes for their first three years. The subjects taught in these three classes were Reading, Writing, Common and Decimal Arithmetic, Scripture, English History, and Geography. Promotion from class to class was to be obtained by an examination. Bad conduct, or want of application, was attended by a loss of time towards the annual increase of pay, and in extreme cases, even by the cancelling of the indentures of apprenticeship.

Progress of Advanced Scholars.—After the three years' course, a general examination was held. Those having sufficient ability, were formed into a second class, and were taught the method used in taking an account of work, in receiving timbers, framing, fastening, and combining different parts of the structure of a ship in a systematic manner, &c. Those who had not profited sufficiently in the first three years to enter on this course, were required to remain in the lower division. The most proficient of this second class were afterwards raised to the mould loft, to learn the laying off of ships, the leading principles of construction, and, as far as it was necessary, Mechanics, Hydrostatics, and Mathematics. During the last year it was intended, though not carried out, that a few should be sent on board H. M. ships, in order to learn how to make a ship complete in hull, masts, yards, &c.

Religious Instruction—Managers—Teachers.—The whole of the religious instruction was left to the Chaplain of the Dockyard; and each school was managed by a Committee of Dockyard Officers, under the Lords of the Admiralty. The Schoolmaster might either be one of the foremen of the Dockyard or an outsider, whichever was found to be the more convenient. In the former case, the salary was 60*l.* in addition to his pay as foreman, and in the latter 80*l.* This system, however, was changed in 1847, when a special class of Schoolmasters was established, ranking with the 'Foreman of the Yard,' and receiving a somewhat higher salary.

Places where Schools were situated—Central School of Mathematics.—Such was the scheme on which these schools were started at the following places:—Portsmouth, Deptford, Woolwich, Chatham, Sheerness, Devonport, and Pembroke. Further detailed regulations were issued by the Admiralty in June 1846 and November 1847. The school at Portsmouth was the chief establishment, and connected with it was the Central School of Mathematics and Naval Construction, which formed a culmination for the other Dockyard Schools.

Beneficial Effect.—The beneficial effect of the schools on the dockyards was not long in making itself felt, as reported in the Admiralty Circular of February 27, 1847. It was considered, however, that by better organisation, and by increasing the encouragement for extra proficiency among the apprentices, a more highly educated class of men might be secured with great advantage to the public service.

Encouragement to High Proficiency — Unsuccessful.— To encourage this, the regulation was made, that annually, eight of the best scholars selected from all the schools, should attend a course of training at the Central School at Portsmouth, and if they passed satisfactorily, should be eligible for appointments as 'leading men,' &c. The best students would thus be enabled to rise to the rank of 'Foremen,' and obtain other high situations in the ship-building branch of the Naval Service. For the remaining students, who could not reach the highest standard, but who showed proficiency, other means of advancement were held out, as the position of Draughtsmen and such-like appointments, the idea being to give every inducement to all classes of apprentices to profit by the instruction of the schools to the fullest extent. This arrangement, however, really proved detrimental, as the hopes thus held out to the apprentices could not be realised. The numbers who passed through the School of Mathematics were far beyond the requirements of the Navy, and several remained for years in hopeless expectation of appointments, after their course of training was complete. The number sent up each year from the Dockyard Schools was accordingly limited to two. So small a class necessarily proved a total failure, and in 1853, the whole scheme of the School for Mathematics was given up.

Canon Moseley's Report.—In the year 1848, Canon Moseley, the Inspector, proposed a scheme for managing these schools

with greater efficiency. His opinion was that, considering the result obtained, and taking into account the loss in value of the apprentices' time during which they attended school, the cost was far beyond what it should have been. In 1850, the same Inspector remarked that Dockyard Schools were in most cases only a continuation of the National School, with the addition of instruction in Elementary Mathematics; nevertheless they were steadily advancing in efficiency. He went so far as to state, that even if carried on as at present for a few years, they would create a body of shipwrights, distinguished from the rest of their class as educated and intelligent men.

Mode of granting Apprenticeships—Unsatisfactory.—The mode of granting apprenticeships to the dockyards was at this time very unsatisfactory. The appointments depended entirely on the amount of private interest which could be brought to bear upon the chief Yard Officers or upon the Admiralty. Subsequently, half the vacancies were filled by those who had been successful at a competitive examination held by the Schoolmaster, and half by patronage as before. Mr. Cumin, in his Report, showed clearly the great defect even of this improved system, as the nomination boys were invariably below the standard attained by the others.

Improvement after 1860.—From the year 1860 until quite recently, though the system of nomination and competition remained, all candidates for admission were examined before the Civil Service Commissioners in the following subjects, viz.:—

1. Exercises to test handwriting and orthography.
2. Reading.
3. Arithmetic.
4. Grammar.
5. English Composition.
6. Geography.
7. Mathematics, Euclid (first three books); Algebra up to, and including, Quadratic Equations; Arithmetical and Geometrical Progression.

The nomination boys were required to come up to a certain standard, and those admitted by competition were of course selected in order of merit.

Present Arrangements—All Vacancies open to Competition.—The Duke of Somerset, during his administration at the Admiralty,

gave up this half-system, and threw the whole of the vacancies open to competition. This change is reported on by Dr. Woolley, as having a most beneficial effect on the schools; chiefly owing to the wide-spread belief in the partiality of the Examiners under the old system, and also in the possibility of their decision, whether just or unjust, being reversed by private interest at the Admiralty. It often necessitated also the absence of the Masters from their schools for considerable periods, thereby materially reducing the efficiency, and injuring the discipline at the several Institutions.

Suggested Improvements in Teaching — Drawing.—In 1858 the Committee on Dockyard Economy drew attention to the desultory character of the Lectures on Chemistry and other scientific subjects. They suggested that a regular and systematic course of instruction should be given, by Teachers thoroughly qualified to impart such instruction, and competent to deliver lectures. They also strongly urged the desirability of affording to the apprentices an opportunity of learning Geometrical Drawing. This subject, which is so important to many descriptions of work, is more particularly useful to the draughtsman and the apprentices generally.

Reports on Schools.—The Dockyard Schools have always been inspected and reported on by an officer specially appointed for that purpose. Canon Moseley for some years performed this duty. In 1853, Dr. Woolley, formerly Principal of the Portsmouth Mathematical School, was appointed to succeed him, and he has continued to inspect the schools ever since. Up to the year 1861 these reports were published in the Blue Book of the Education Department; but since the time of the adoption of the Revised Code, the Inspector has been placed directly under the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, to whom his reports have consequently been made. It is to be regretted that no official reports have been issued concerning these schools since they have been under Admiralty supervision.

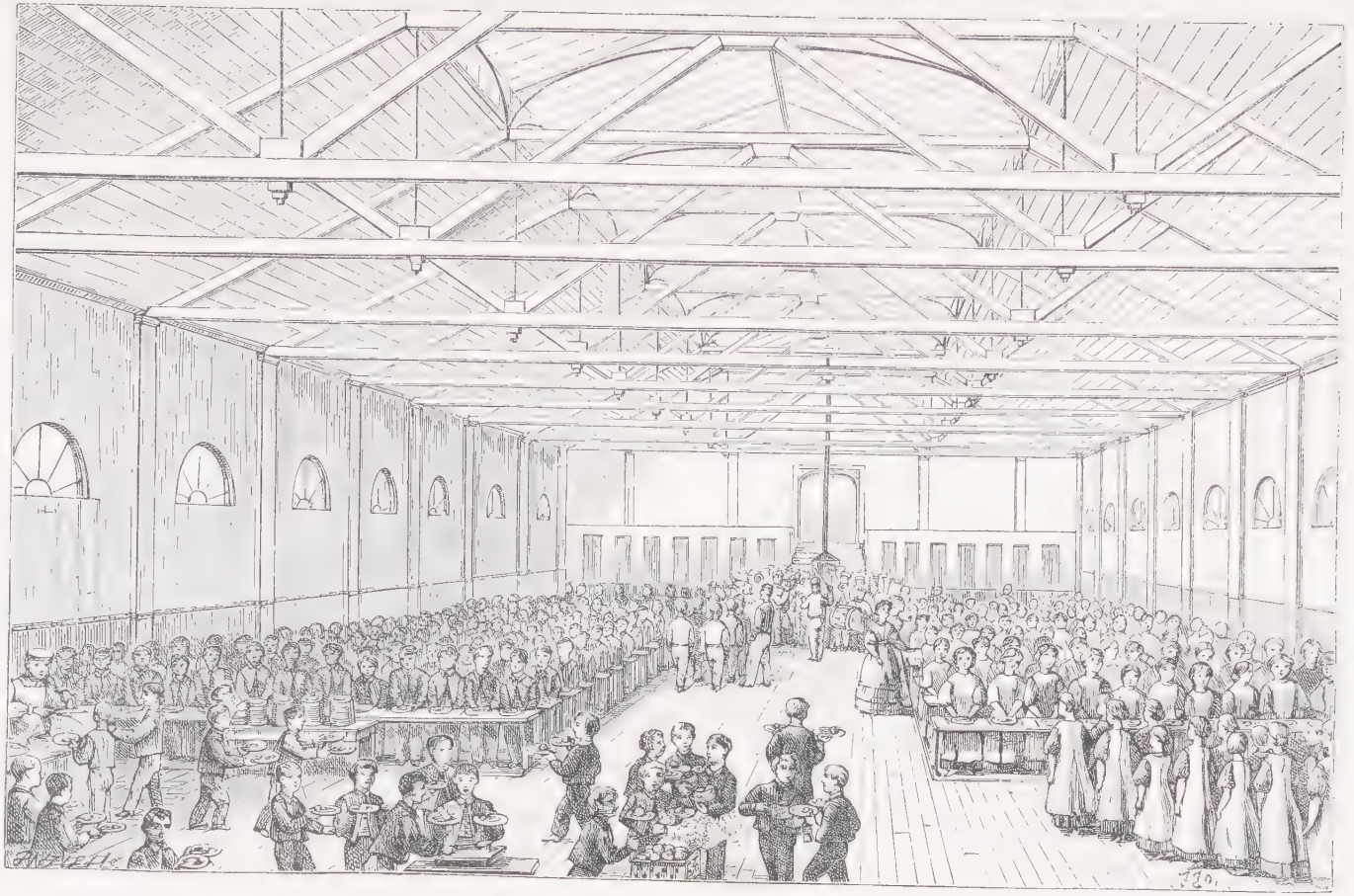
Improvements in Pupils' Intelligence.—In 1860, Dr. Woolley writes as follows:—'In reporting on the present state of the Dockyard Schools, I cannot refrain from remarking on the marked contrast between the general intelligence of the apprentices, as shown in their answers to my questions now, and what it was seven years ago, when I was first charged with the

duty of their inspection. This is, no doubt, in great measure attributable to the general improvement in Elementary Education which has taken place during that period, but also to the greater care that has been of late taken in excluding the grossly ignorant from the selected candidates. The grossly ridiculous blunders which were made in the answers I used to receive to questions of general interest, with which all people should be acquainted, now never occur. It cannot, however, be denied that the general standard is not so high as under favourable circumstances it might be, and as under the new rules for admission it may fairly be expected to become.'

Statistics.—The number of students in the schools in 1859 was as follows:—

	Apprentices	Factory and Hired Boys	Total
Chatham	60	...	60
Deptford	38	...	38
Devonport	81	21	102
Pembroke	42	...	42
Portsmouth	70	81	151
Sheerness	59	24	83
Woolwich	48	...	48
Total	398	126	524
Total in 1858	484	199	683

Changes in Arrangements for compelling Attendance.—As before stated, when the schools were first opened, all the apprentices were compelled to attend, devoting to study part of the time they would otherwise have expended in dockyard work. It was afterwards considered that their mental improvement did not compensate for the pecuniary injury to the public service involved by the loss of time of so many hands; and this arrangement was consequently given up. It is now only during the first three years that apprentices are compelled to attend school. In the fourth year they may, if they apply for permission, and are recommended by the Schoolmaster, attend in the afternoon and evening. The greater number take advantage of this privilege. In the fifth year, on the recommendation of the Inspector, they may still pursue their studies, and in this case the Master is allowed 10*l.* a year for their instruction. This may continue for two years, that is, until the end of the sixth year.



DINNER AT HANWELL DISTRICT SCHOOL

(*See* page 293)

Promotion of Advanced Pupils—Scholarships.—Those apprentices who excelled in the several branches of learning at the Dockyard Schools were granted scholarships by competition, in order to enable them to attend a superior course of training, comprising Drawing, laying off on the mould-loft floor, and the higher branches of Mathematics. This superior course was only taught at the principal dockyards, namely, Portsmouth, Devonport, and Chatham; the apprentices belonging to Deptford, Woolwich, and Sheerness, who were eligible to receive this training, being drafted to one or other of the dockyards above referred to. The whole time of these apprentices was occupied in the mould-loft, except that portion which was devoted to the higher branches of Mathematics and the subjects which were pursued in the ordinary Dockyard School of the yard to which they had been sent. Each apprentice was allowed 10*l.* per annum, in addition to his ordinary wages, on his being recommended to attend this higher course.*

Abolition of Superior Course.—This system of training was resorted to sometime after the Central School of Mathematics at Portsmouth was abolished; the idea in the minds of its promoters being in a measure to compensate for the loss of the training in the Central School. As, however, the education thus received was not considered sufficient to meet the requirements of the service, the Royal School of Naval Architecture at South Kensington was subsequently established, and at first, the candidates for this school were all selected from those undergoing the superior course. However, about three years ago, the superior course was done away with, and since then the apprentices to be educated at South Kensington have been chosen from the Dockyard Schools to which they severally belong. It cannot be expected that the apprentices, taken, as it were, from the ranks, can be so well prepared to enter upon their studies at South Kensington as those who had been trained in the manner before described. As, however, the term for the South Kensington School, which was originally three years, has been extended to four years; and the theoretical work, instead of being six months in the year, is now extended to seven months; it is thought that this alteration will make up for the lack of knowledge felt through the relinquishing of this superior course of training at the principal dockyards.

* Pembroke Dockyard being a long distance from Devonport, the apprentices belonging to Pembroke were allowed to receive the superior course at their own yard.

Factory and other Boys attend School irregularly.—The factory and other hired boys in the dockyards are allowed to attend the schools after the hours of work. This arrangement, however, leaves them only a short time for study; in some cases, only half-an-hour twice a week, and the attendance then is necessarily very irregular and unsatisfactory, depending, as it does, on the state of work, and the pressure or otherwise on the resources of the yard.

Inefficiency of Teachers—Salaries.—Although the efficiency of the Teachers has of late considerably improved, yet in some of the schools the teaching power is not sufficient for the requirements. In 1860 this was particularly so; some Masters were well qualified for their duties, but the deficiency of others caused the Inspector to comment on their want of life and energy. The salaries of the Teachers now range from 200*l.* to 250*l.* per annum, and these, as well as all other costs of the schools, are included in the Admiralty Estimates for each year.

Scientific Apparatus.—A considerable amount of Natural Philosophy Apparatus has, within the last ten years, been supplied to most of the Dockyard Schools, chiefly at Dr. Woolley's instigation. Dr. Woolley considers that the delivery of scientific lectures has done much to interest the students, as well as to raise the general character of the instruction. In some cases, pupils are sent to the Royal School of Naval Architecture, with an advanced practical knowledge of these subjects.

Engineer Students must all attend School.—Since 1863, all the Engineer Students in the dockyards have been required to attend the Dockyard Schools. These students, like the apprentices, are selected after competition before the Civil Service Commissioners. They then attend at the factories for six years, during the whole of which time they are required to be at the schools. They then have to pass a theoretical examination, after which their practical knowledge is tested. If found duly qualified, they become assistants, and finally engineers, having charge of the whole engineering duties on board ships. These appointments are much sought after, the numbers competing for them being considerably on the increase, while those for the post of 'Dockyard Apprentice' are rather on the decrease.

Royal School of Naval Architecture—Origin.—The culmination of the Dockyard Schools is the Royal School of Naval Architec-

ture at South Kensington. This school may be said to have originated with, or rather grown out of, the Central School of Mathematics and Naval Architecture at Portsmouth, founded by the Admiralty Circular of June 27, 1846. This Central School of Mathematics, to which a few incidental references have already been made, was formed for the purpose of educating in Mathematical Science twenty-four of the most efficient apprentices, who had been four years at the Dockyard Schools. Eight students were to enter every year, so that the course of study for each would be three years. After leaving, they were to enter the dockyards as 'leading men,' and were thus in the line of promotion to the higher ranks in the profession. Dr. Woolley was appointed Principal, and the course of study was made complete in every respect. It included Dynamics, Hydrostatics, Hydrodynamics, the Steam Engine, the Marine Engine, Strength of Materials, Logic, the Differential and Integral Calculus, &c.

Failure of Central School of Mathematics, Portsmouth.—The scheme, however, was not as successful as had been anticipated, partly from the fact that the twenty-four students were soon reduced to about ten, in consequence of the requirements of the dockyards not being sufficient to provide annually for the eight who passed through the school. After various changes of numbers and system, the school, as before stated, was finally closed in 1853.

Want of such an Institution.—The want of such an Institution, however, was still seriously felt by the Admiralty. After various proposals, it was determined to open a School of Naval Architecture at South Kensington, 'with a view of providing especially for the education of officers of Her Majesty's Service in ship-building, and of promoting the general study of the science of Ship-building and Naval Engineering.'

Opening of R. S. of Naval Architecture—Course of Instruction.—After a lengthy correspondence between the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty and the Lord President of the Council, this Institution was opened on November 1, 1864. By the arrangement thus made, it is placed under the management of the Science and Art Department. Dr. Woolley, the Inspector of Navy Schools under the Admiralty, is the Inspector-General of the school. The course of instruction is somewhat similar to that pursued at the old school at Portsmouth, but slightly more

advanced, and is now spread over four years, though until lately it was limited to three. The session of theoretical work embraces seven months, from October 1 to April 30, the remainder of the year being devoted to practical study at the dockyards.

Classes of Students.—Two classes of students are received at the Royal School of Naval Architecture:—

Firstly. Dockyard and Engineer Students, for whom it was primarily formed; and

Secondly. Private Students as far as the accommodation of the premises will permit.

Mode of Admission.—The Dockyard and Engineer Students are sent to the Royal School of Naval Architecture from the Admiralty, and their cost is defrayed out of the votes taken by that Department. A competition is held before Dr. Woolley during the sixth year of their apprenticeship, and those who may be selected are sent to South Kensington. The private students are only admitted if they have sufficient elementary education to enable them to take advantage of the instruction of the school. The payment required from them is 25*l.* a session, an abatement being made if they at once enter for the whole course of four years.

Statistics of Students.—The number of students up to the present time has been as follows:—

Year	Admiralty Students	Private Students paying Fees	Scholarships*	Free Students*	Total
1864–65	16	3	...	2	21
1865–66	24	10	...	3	37
1866–67	29	12	...	3	44
1867–68	24	15	1	2	42
1868–69	26	6†	2	1	35
1869–70	30	7	3	1	41
1870–71	32	7	3	Nil	42

* Awarded in competition. † In addition to five other students, who joined late.

Scholarships—Diplomas.—Two scholarships of 50*l.* a year and four free studentships may be competed for each year by private students or others who are not sent to school at the public expense. Up to the present time, however, but few have been granted. The titles of 'Associate' and 'Fellow' of the school are given to those who pass the final examination, after the full course of four years.

Conclusion—Results of Dockyard Schools.—This slight sketch of the Royal School of Naval Architecture has been inserted to show its connection with the Dockyard Schools, and from the fact that it forms the means of an advanced instruction to the pupils in these Institutions who by their ability obtain admission at South Kensington. These Institutions, always few in number, have lately been reduced to five by the abolition of Woolwich and Deptford. They have, nevertheless, had a material effect on the present state of naval architecture, for not only have they improved the general tone of the education of the dockyards, but they can fairly lay claim to having trained Mr. Reed, the late Chief Constructor of the Navy, Mr. Barnes, Mr. Barnaby, Mr. Crossland, and others, all of whom obtained their first steps in one or other of these schools.

25. GREENWICH HOSPITAL SCHOOL, FOR THE ORPHANS OF SAILORS.

Original Intentions of Founders.—The relation which the Greenwich Hospital Schools bear to the Navy is similar to that which the Chelsea and Dublin Institutions for the children of soldiers bear to the Army. Although they have never been exclusively devoted to orphans, yet from the first the idea seems to have been to provide chiefly for those whose parents had either died or been disabled in the service of their country. In the original Charter of William and Mary, dated October 25, 1694, and in the Acts of Parliament passed subsequently, provision was made for the following objects in connection with Greenwich Hospital Schools :—

1. The maintenance and education of the children of seamen happening to be slain or disabled while serving at sea in the Royal Navy.

2. The improvement of navigation, and the furnishing and supplying of the Royal Navy with a competent number of able mariners and seamen.

3. The further relief and encouragement of seamen.

Commencement—How Supported—Progress.—No attempt, however, appears to have been made for nearly twenty years to carry out the first object. A Charity School opened in 1712 for 10 boys, who were clothed and educated, formed the nucleus of the present Institution. The cost was defrayed from several sources ; amongst others three-fourths of the fees taken for showing the 'Painted Hall' at Greenwich, and the 'mulcts and stoppages' demanded from the pensioners for various offences, &c. In 1719 the pupils were fed as well as clothed and educated, and admission to the school was thrown open to the children of all poor seamen. This is stated in the rules for the

qualification of candidates published that year, which laid down that pupils must be the '*sons of pensioners or other poor seamen.*' In 1730 and 1734 new regulations were issued concerning those who were to be eligible for the benefits of the Institution. These specially provided that the orphans of those sailors who had been 'slain, drowned, or who had otherwise died in the public service,' should take precedence of all others as candidates for admission. The number of boys accommodated appears to have gradually increased, for in 1730 there were 60; in 1790, 150; and in 1803 the number reached 200.

Royal Naval Asylum.—In 1798 the Royal Naval Asylum at Paddington was founded for the education of a certain number of orphan and other children, both boys and girls, of the non-commissioned officers and seamen of His Majesty's fleet and of the marine forces. This was originated by private subscription, and was styled 'The British Endeavour.' In 1805 it was removed to Greenwich, and from that time to 1821 it received an annual grant from Parliament which almost entirely supported it. The Patriotic Fund Committee of Lloyd's also made grants towards defraying its expenses.

Incorporation of the two Institutions.—During this period the Greenwich Hospital Schools and the Royal Naval Asylum continued their operations much on the same principles, but each under distinct management. In 1821 the two were combined into one large Institution. That which had formerly been the Hospital School was called the Upper, and that which had before been the Asylum was styled the Lower School. The reason for this change is given in a letter addressed by the Admiralty to Lord Sidmouth, dated January 22, 1821. It stated that the only practical difference subsisting between the two schools 'is that they have in some instances a duplicate establishment of officers, which of course creates to a proportional extent duplicate expense; and we have reason to hope that, besides the saving of the salaries of the officers of the Royal Naval Asylum, who would become unnecessary if that Institution were to be placed under the officers of Greenwich Hospital, the funds of the Greenwich School might by judicious arrangements, and with the addition of the interest of the sum of 90,000*l.* three per cent. Consols, placed at the disposal of the Commissioners of the Royal Naval Asylum, be made nearly equal to the expense of maintaining the whole number of children now provided for in

the separate establishments, without requiring, it is expected, any additional aid from the public; while, on the other hand, those arrangements will, it is hoped, produce a better system of discipline, a more useful plan of education, and additional means of extending the sphere of the utility of these charities, to objects more interesting in themselves, and eventually more useful to the public service, by affording maintenance, and a suitable education, to the sons of officers of the Navy, whose circumstances may induce them to wish for such assistance.'

Results of Incorporation—Decay of Schools.—The effect of this alteration was at first a considerable saving in expense, and at the same time great improvement as regards the efficiency of the children's education. The outlay on the 1,000 pupils, after the combination had taken place, was but 16*l.* per head, while it had previously been 30*l.* for the Hospital School. From that time no Parliamentary grants were made, but the whole costs were defrayed out of the general funds of the Hospital. The efficiency of the schools during the next twenty years appears to have gradually decreased, so that in 1841 their working was evidently behind the age. A Committee was accordingly appointed under Lord Dalmeny to investigate the matter, and on its recommendation a new system was introduced, and the girls' school abolished. In 1859 a Royal Commission was appointed to enquire into the state of Greenwich Hospital. This Commission entered fully into the existing state of the schools, and considerable alterations were introduced in consequence.

Failure to fulfil Original Objects.—Their working, however, seems to have continued in a very defective state, and to have departed more and more from the original intention with which the schools were founded. In 1867, 511 of the boys were the sons of officers and petty officers, though a considerable number of them were orphans, whereas only 265 were sons of seamen in the Royal Navy and privates in the Royal Marines. Much the same state of affairs existed last year, so that the Institution, so far from being a 'Charity School professing to bestow a limited education on the children of pensioners and poor seamen, the curriculum became so extended as to make the education an object of desire for the children of parents of higher social position.'

Change of System in 1870.—In consequence of this state of the schools, a Committee was appointed by the Lords Commissioners

of the Admiralty to enquire into their condition, cost, and utility. This Committee recommended an entire change in the character of the Institution, which was begun in the autumn of 1870. The administration of the school is, by these regulations, completely altered and placed much on the same basis as the District Schools. The half-time system has been introduced, and industrial occupations now take up a great part of the children's time.

Present Rules for Admission.—The regulations for the admission of boys is settled by a Committee of Selection, composed of the Chaplain of Greenwich Hospital, the Superintendent of the School, and the Junior Lord of the Admiralty, who acts as Chairman. With the exceptions mentioned below, it is an essential condition that the boys be the sons of petty officers and seamen, and of non-commissioned officers and privates of marines, who have served, or are now serving, in the Royal Navy, the Coast Guard, or the Royal Naval Reserve, or of other seafaring persons. The applications for admission are taken in the following order of precedence:—

1. Orphans, both parents being dead.
2. Sons of seamen who have died from disease, or who have been killed, drowned, wounded, or seriously maimed, while actively engaged in Her Majesty's Service, or while employed by Her Majesty on board a merchant ship, or in action with an enemy, pirate, or rebel.
3. Boys whose fathers, having served in the Royal Navy or Marines, are dead.
4. Sons of Naval pensioners, seamen, and marines, now serving Her Majesty, both of whose parents are living.
5. Sons of other seamen and marines entitled to the benefits of Greenwich Hospital.
6. Sons of other seafaring persons.

In addition to these, the sons of commissioned and other officers are admissible, provided they are considered proper objects by the Committee of Selection. In all cases the Admiralty has specially laid down that the length of time the father has been in Her Majesty's Service shall be particularly taken into account when considering the application of a boy for admission. It is necessary that satisfactory proof should be given of the parents' marriage, and that a certificate of the boy's birth should be sent with his application, which must be

made for the Lower School when he is between nine and ten years of age.

Religious Instruction.—The religious instruction of the whole school is under the Chaplain of the Hospital. Roman Catholics and Dissenters are allowed to attend the places of public worship belonging to the persuasion of their respective parents or guardians, if a wish to this effect be expressed at the time of admission. Every facility is given for the attendance at stated times of the ministers of different denominations to give religious instruction to those boys who do not belong to the Church of England.

Divisions of School.—The Institution is now divided into two, namely, The General School and The Selected Division.

The General School.

The Lower Division.

The age at which boys are admitted to this division of the school is from ten to ten and a quarter years. They must be physically fit for the sea service, be able to read an easy sentence, and possess a knowledge of the first four rules of Arithmetic. No condition as to future service is, however, required, and at the specified age they can leave for any occupation they think proper.

Course of Instruction—School and Industrial Work.—When all the new arrangements are complete the school will be conducted on the half-time system, one day being devoted to school and the next to industrial occupations. The course of instruction will comprise a sound English education, including English History, Geography, Grammar, and Arithmetic. The industrial occupation will include mending and making their own clothes, cleaning and scrubbing the premises, assisting in all the domestic duties of the school, cooking, &c. When this is arranged it is proposed that there shall be a staff of 20 carpenters, 40 shoemakers, 80 tailors, 100 musicians, and 140 scrubbers; each boy being kept at one of these occupations every alternate day. At the age of thirteen each boy leaves this Lower Division, and is free to engage in any occupation his parents or friends may desire. He can, however, if still physically eligible, remain at the Institution on one of two conditions, namely, if he is willing

to enter the Upper Division of the school, or if he can succeed in obtaining admission to the Selected Division.

The Upper Division.

This branch of the school is limited to those who undertake to enter the Royal Navy. The age at which boys enter is thirteen, and it is necessary for their parents or guardians to give an agreement that they will be allowed to go to sea. No one, however, is admitted unless he is found physically fit after a severe medical examination. On passing this he is bound to continue in the school until fourteen and a half years of age. He is then sent to a training-ship, thence on to the Royal Naval Service, where he must stay until he is twenty-eight years of age.

Outside Candidates.—If vacancies still remain, other boys besides those brought up in the Lower Division are eligible for admission to this branch. Candidates for such vacancies, however, must be the sons of seamen and marines, and able to pass an examination in Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic. Their parents have also to enter into a similar agreement to that above mentioned concerning their future service in the Navy.

Course of Study.—The occupation of time in this branch of the school is different to that in the Lower Division, although it is still on the half-time system. The ordinary book work is continued to a somewhat more advanced stage, and the alternate days are devoted to those duties specially bearing on a sailor's calling. The greatest attention is consequently given to teaching each pupil the various parts of the hull of a ship and the rigging. With this view, masts and yards with sails complete sufficiently large for the boys to be able to handle each part are being erected on the premises. Boats are also provided for their use on the river.

Staff of Teachers.—The staff of Instructors for practical seamanship consists of four first class petty officers, who are appointed to give instruction in sail-making, gunnery, and the cutlass exercise. This branch of industrial work takes up the complete half-time of the boys, so that, beyond learning to mend their own clothes, if they have not already done so, no other industrial work is required.

The Selected Division.

Rules for Admission.—This division is limited to 80 pupils. It is recruited from the general school with those boys who, at the age of thirteen, succeed by their talents, industry, and good conduct, in obtaining admission after a competitive examination. No bond or agreement as to the future occupation of those who enter is at first required. When, however, a boy has been one year a pupil in this division he has to elect whether he will proceed with his studies in Navigation or Engineering. At the same time he is required to enter into an engagement, conjointly with his parents or guardians, to join the Royal Navy at the conclusion of his tuition in such a capacity as he may be found fit for, at the discretion of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty. If he be not willing to undertake this, he is discharged from the school at the age of fourteen.

Course of Study.—In this division, Elementary Mathematics and Mechanics, Navigation, Nautical Astronomy, and French are taught, together with the practical management of the Steam Engine. The half-time work is not continued except to an extent sufficient to enable the boys to learn how to mend their own clothes. It is desired that all who leave Greenwich, for whatever occupation, shall be expert in this respect. At the age of fifteen and a half they enter the Navy as engineer students, pupil teachers, writers, ship's stewards, or 'boys.' From the training which they have received when the school is in complete working order, there can be no doubt but they will prove efficient men in the public service.

Pupil Teachers.—The Pupil Teachers usually number about 16, and, as stated in the Chapter on Training Schools for the Navy and schools on board ship, they will in future supply the Navy with schoolmasters. Scholars in the Selected Division are appointed Pupil Teachers at the age of fourteen. They enter into a bond to complete their training, and then to continue to serve for ten years as Navy Schoolmasters. They are generally retained for two years at Greenwich, and then sent on board a training-ship, where they undergo the regular course of instruction; after this, they are sent to an ordinary training college, for another period of two years. Their training is then considered complete, and they are ready for service on board a sea-going ship. The payments they receive during the time of their apprenticeship are as follows, viz.:—

	s.	*d.*	
First and Second year	0	6	a week.
Third year	1	0	,,
Fourth ,, ...	1	6	,,
Fifth ,, ...	2	0	,,
Sixth ,, ...	2	6	,,

Reduction in Cost.—The cost of the Greenwich Schools, it is anticipated, will be much reduced under the present plan. During the last few years, it has been found that the outlay on about 800 boys averaged 23,113*l.* a year. Under the present plan, but 21*l.* 5*s.* is the allowance for each pupil; so that the total outlay on the same number of boys will be 17,000*l.*, showing a reduction of 6,113*l.* This has been effected mainly in the administration, no less than 2,214*l.* being struck off the cost of salaries, &c., of officers and masters. The reduction in the charge for servants, cost of making clothes, washing, and such items, is considerable, owing to the plan of the school now requiring that the boys shall largely attend to these matters themselves. These alterations will therefore not only effect a large saving, but materially improve the school, making it much more practically useful in training boys for their future calling.

Outfits.—It was formerly the custom to grant a certain sum for outfit to all when discharged. This was fixed at 1*l.* 12*s.* for those who left to go to their friends, and 3*l.* 10*s.* for those who entered the Royal Navy direct. Money is given now to those only who enter Her Majesty's Service.

Advantages of Training Sailors on Shore.—For the education of lads for the Navy, a school on shore has in some respects advantages over one conducted on board a regular training-ship. On first thoughts it may appear that a sailor must be the better for having been brought up at sea from as early an age as possible. This, however, is not considered to be the case by some best fitted to form an opinion. The facilities of having large models of ships whereby the boys may understand the rigging and parts of the vessel are very great. These models are required to be of such a size that a student may stand on the deck, handle the spars, and furl and unfurl the sails by himself. This of course he could not do on the real fittings of a training-ship, nor is there sufficient space between decks for such collections of models as are necessary.

Greenwich Boys have to pass through Training-Ships.—According to the present regulations, boys from Greenwich who enter the

Navy are afterwards required to serve the regular time on board the training-ships. This would seem to be hardly necessary, as the course of instruction pursued at the two establishments is so similar.

Conclusion.—Looking at the past history of the school at Greenwich, and considering the prospects which lie before it under the system just introduced, there seem to be evident signs that its future working and results will soon be completely in harmony with the intentions of its founders. These were the maintenance and education of the children of seamen, preference being given to those who were slain or disabled in the public service, and the consequent recruiting of the Navy with efficient lads especially trained for the duties of a seafaring life.

SCHOOLS UNDER THE DIRECTION

OF THE

SECRETARY OF STATE

FOR WAR.

ARMY SCHOOLS.

SCHOOLS FOR THE ORPHANS OF SOLDIERS.

26. THE WAR DEPARTMENT.

Education in the Army.—The association of education with the profession of arms has necessarily existed from the remotest periods of history. In more modern times the complicated theories of fortifications, and the numerous and intricate principles involved in the appliances which science has turned to account for warlike purposes, have rendered schools more than ever necessary, in order to qualify officers for the proper discharge of their duties. The idea, however, of the private soldier being made more efficient in his calling, by possessing a sound education, appears not to have been entertained to any extent until a comparatively recent date.

War Office unconnected with Education until 1811.—Up to the year 1811 the War Department does not seem to have considered the question of the elementary education of the soldier as coming within its legitimate functions. In some regiments, it is true, previous to this, commanding officers who appreciated the value of education, had attempted to provide for the improvement of the soldiers' children, and in some few cases classes were formed for young recruits. No systematic efforts, however, were made at Head Quarters to supply upon any extensive scale the educational wants of the Army.

War Office since 1811.—The first direct action of the War Department in reference to the subject dates from 1811, and is fully described in the account of Army Schools. Since that time, the Department has continued increasingly to devote its attention to the object of securing for the children of the soldier facilities for receiving a sound elementary education. It has also provided such a system that both privates and non-commissioned officers are offered the means for obtaining thorough instruction. Every inducement is held out to them to take

advantage of the opportunities thus afforded, though unfortunately at the present time they are not sufficiently appreciated.

Assistance from Education Department.—The management of Army Schools has from their foundation been entrusted to the Secretary of State for War. It was proposed in 1856 that occasional assistance should be rendered from the Education Department in inspecting Regimental Schools and reporting on them to the War Department. This does not appear to have been carried out to any great extent. For many years each regiment or brigade had almost the entire control over its own scholastic arrangements, and worked as an independent Institution, with little, if any, superintendence by the central authority.

Inspectors of Army Schools.—In 1846 an Inspector of Regimental Schools was appointed; and in 1854 an Inspector-General, whose duties were to organise and consolidate the working of the various schools into one uniform system. This continued till 1860, when for a period of ten years the duties of this officer were transferred to a committee, styled The Council of Military Education. Since April 1, 1870, the appointment of a Director-General has been again restored. The history of the two classes of schools embraced under this heading, and the several changes which have been made in them, will now be considered in detail.

27. ARMY SCHOOLS.

Commencement of Present System.—The educational provisions for the Army are of such a character that any soldier, except when located at a very out of the way station, is able readily to obtain the benefit of sound instruction if he wishes to do so. The arrangements have become systematised, as the public feeling for the advantages of education has developed. Until nearly the close of the Peninsular War, little or nothing had been done for the education of the soldier. No doubt in many cases, owing to the energy of a few commanding officers, some advantages were held out and encouragements given, to induce the men of individual regiments to improve themselves. These efforts, however, as stated by His Royal Highness the Duke of York, the then Commander-in-Chief, had unavoidably been kept within narrow bounds, owing to the inadequate means of carrying any general and effectual arrangement into execution.

Commencement of Improvement—First Regulations.—His Royal Highness, to whom is due the credit of framing an educational scheme for the Army, addressed a letter on August 26, 1811, to Viscount Palmerston, then Secretary of War, recommending the establishment of Regimental Schools. This letter pointed out the advantages which must attend such a measure, both to the young recruits as well as to the soldiers' children. He urged, in the first place, as essential, the appointment of a Serjeant Schoolmaster to each battalion, to be paid at the same rate as a paymaster's clerk, whose duty it should be to instruct without fee both the classes above named. The payment of fees was, however, afterwards sanctioned. The scale was fixed as follows, viz.: for a serjeant 8*d.* a month; for a corporal 6*d.*; and for a private 4*d.* He also considered it necessary that a room, with an allowance for fuel and light, should be provided in each regimental barrack,

for the use of the school, and that a sum should be allowed from the public funds for the necessary books, stationery, &c.

Lord Palmerston's Approval, 1811.—Lord Palmerston strongly approved of this measure, and a Circular, dated December 27, 1811, addressed to the colonel of each regiment, authorised the carrying out of the suggestions, and named 10*l.* as the sum to be allowed per annum for the stationery, books, &c., at each school. On July 24, 1812, a Royal Warrant was issued, arranging and settling the details of the scheme.

Efficiency Depended on Commanding Officer—Selection of Teachers.—This plan continued in force with little or no alteration for many years. The efficiency of each school mainly depended on the energy of the commanding officer and the interest he took in its welfare. The selection of the serjeant schoolmaster devolved on the commanding officer, who recommended for the appointment the most suitable person in his judgment belonging to the regiment. If this source failed he made a selection for the post elsewhere at his discretion. In some cases this led to curious coincidences. On one occasion, as no one in the regiment was known to be sufficiently educated, a reduced Scotch clergyman was placed in the position, but owing to his complete unfitness for the duties, and ignorance of the discipline of a military school, he could not long be retained.

Schoolmaster Serjeant—Pay—Inspector.—The first step which led to the present system of Army Schools was that of making the appointment of 'Trained Schoolmaster Serjeant.' This was done by a Royal Warrant, dated July 2, 1846, which stated that with a view of improving the system of instruction in the Regimental Schools, it was deemed expedient to introduce this class of non-commissioned officer into the Army. Candidates for the appointment were to be required to undergo a training of two years, and to obtain a certificate of fitness from the Military Training College at Chelsea, which was then about to be created. On appointment they were to be paid at the rate of 2*s.* 6*d.* a day, with a rise of 6*d.* for good conduct, and to rank next after the serjeant-major. They were also to receive three-fourths of the school fees charged at that period to the soldiers. The same Warrant ordered that an Inspector was to be appointed by the Secretary of State for War, whose duty it should be to superintend all Army Schools.

Different Ranks of Army Schoolmasters.—A few years later, another Royal Warrant was issued, which again considerably improved the position of the Army Schoolmasters, as well as more fully systematised the regulations for the schools, in each garrison. This was dated May 31, 1854, and by it four classes of Masters were appointed, with varying rates of pay; namely:—

	s.	d.	
First Class . . .	7	0	a day and certain allowances.
Second ,, . . .	5	6	,, ,,
Third ,, . . .	4	0	,, ,,
Assistants. . . .	2	0	,, ,,

From this time no share in the school fees fell to the Masters, whose incomes were limited to the above sums. The number in each class was left to the discretion of the Secretary at War. The first class Schoolmaster was a warrant officer, and ranked next to those holding a commission; the position of the second and third was next to serjeant-major, and the assistants ranked as serjeants. This classification has since been abolished, though some of the Masters thus classed are still serving.

Regulations for Children—Mistresses—Infant and Industrial Schools.—The schools which were already in existence remained under much the same regulations after the appointment of these new teachers. Officers, non-commissioned officers, and privates were to be required to pay a small monthly fee for their children if they attended the schools. The barrack-serjeants, warders, and pensioners, or discharged soldiers, were to be allowed to take advantage of the means of instruction for their children, provided there were accommodation, but were to be charged a fee of 3*d.* a week, as fixed by the Secretary of State for War.* A Schoolmistress, who was often the wife of the Master, and who had been trained at the Whitelands Training College, or at the Home and Colonial Institution in Gray's Inn Road, was also appointed to nearly all the schools. She was at first paid at the rate of 14*l.* per annum in each regiment of cavalry, and 2*l.* per company per annum in each regiment of infantry, in addition to a share in the fees paid by the scholars. These details have been altered from time to time, and at present the Schoolmistresses are divided into three classes, and paid respectively 36*l.*, 30*l.*, and 24*l.* per annum, with allowances. By the same regulations, which still remain in force, the Mistress was to have charge of an Infant and an Industrial School. These

* The sums thus received are paid into the Exchequer.

were to be attached to any garrison or regiment to which a trained Master was appointed. The former, or Infant School, is a mixed school of both girls and boys; the latter, or Industrial School, is limited to female children, and the youngest boys if their parents desire them to attend. The instruction here consists of needlework, knitting, &c., for which materials are provided at the public cost, at the rate of 5*s.* per annum for each pupil.

Superintending Schoolmasters' Duties.—In 1863 the office of Superintending Schoolmaster with a relative rank of ensign was created, and four from among the most experienced first class Schoolmasters were appointed to it. Since that time, the number has increased, and at the present moment above twelve are engaged in this duty. These officers have to visit frequently the Army Schools in the district to which they are attached, to examine them periodically, and to lecture to the troops when required to do so. They are at liberty to enter a school whenever they think proper, but any suggestions or remarks must be reported within twenty-four hours to the commanding officer. They are held responsible for seeing that every corps in their station is examined once each year, and it is their duty to give notice to the Director General and Inspector of Army Schools when an examination is required. They are to conduct this examination by means of papers which they have to prepare both for the adults and the elder children, but not for the Infant Schools, and to report the result to these officers. They are also charged with examining candidates who present themselves for appointments as Pupil Teachers and Schoolmistresses, with looking over their worked papers, and with transmitting the same to the Director General.

Present Regulations.—Having thus briefly considered the chief means which have led to the present condition of Army Education, an account will be given of the regulations and working of the system as now in force.

Classes of Army Schools.—The schools which are included under the regulations of the Army may be divided into two classes; viz.:—

1. The Children's Schools, comprising those for Infants, and those for Children over eight years of age.
2. The Adult Schools for Soldiers.

The Children's Schools.

Instruction similar to Ordinary Primary School—Attendance more regular.—The mode of instruction, and the regulations of the schools generally, differ in but few respects from those of the ordinary Elementary Schools in connection with the Education Department. No children are admitted, according to the strict rule, but such as belong to the regiment or brigade to which the school is attached. The fee for these children is 2*d.* a month, 3*d.* for two, or 1*d.* each for three or more of the same family. The children of pensioners, discharged soldiers, and others engaged by the garrison or regiment are still, as before, permitted to attend, provided there be accommodation for them. All these are required to pay a fee of 3*d.* a week. Officers' children may also be sent to the school, but they are charged a higher fee. The attendance is usually more regular than that in many other Elementary Schools; for although the children are not compelled to come, yet in most cases the indirect influence of the colonel is great as a means of securing their uniform attendance. Besides this, in case the attendance of the children be irregular, or their education neglected, he has the power of withholding certain advantages from the soldiers' wives, such as giving them the washing of the unmarried soldiers. A regular payment is made by the regiment for this work, and the obtaining the contract is much sought after. It is generally given, though not as a matter of course, to the wives of the soldiers.

Soldier Assistants—Monitress—Pupil Teachers.—When the number of adults and elder children, taken together, in the school exceeds sixty, the Master is allowed one Assistant. This Assistant, who is a soldier, is selected as the fittest man who can be spared to fulfil the duty. He is granted 3*d.* a day in addition to his ordinary pay. If the pupils exceed a hundred, two such Assistants are granted; and for every additional forty pupils, the allowance for another may be obtained. In the Girls' and Infants' Schools, a Monitress is permitted for every twenty-five scholars, or a Pupil Teacher for every fifty scholars. The difference between these two Assistants consists in this, that the Pupil Teacher has to undergo a somewhat severe examination under the Superintendent before she can be accepted by the Director General. The Monitress undergoes no examination, but is merely selected by the commanding officer as being the

most eligible young person available between the ages of thirteen and seventeen. Her appointment is only from year to year, and her salary 4*l.* per annum. The Pupil Teacher begins at once with 6*l.*, and rises 3*l.* each year of her apprenticeship.

Religious Teaching—How arranged.—The religious teaching of the schools consists of Reading and explaining the Bible each morning for half an hour. Forms of Catechism and all dogmatic teaching are avoided, but an hour is set apart each week for the special instruction of the children in the tenets of their own particular persuasion. On these occasions of special religious instruction the scholars are apportioned to different rooms, according to the religious views of their parents, and each room receives instruction from a clergyman of a particular denomination. Thus at Woolwich, on Tuesdays for the boys, and on Wednesdays for the girls, between 11 and 12 o'clock, the Church of England clergyman, with the help of Assistants, gives a religious lesson; whilst in other rooms, at the same moment, the Roman Catholic priest and the Presbyterian clergyman are instructing the rest of the scholars. The boys and girls are usually thus taught together, except where it is necessary to separate them on account of the number.

Mixed Schools.—In all the Regimental Schools, except those of the Royal Horse Artillery, the Depôt Brigade Royal Artillery, and the Royal Engineers' Head Quarters at Chatham, the elder children over eight years of age form one mixed school. This is necessary, as in no places except those above named is there a sufficient number of children to carry on efficiently separate Boys' and Girls' Schools.

Differences to Ordinary Schools.—In one respect these schools differ from ordinary Elementary Schools under the Committee of Council, namely, that they are dependent entirely on the public grant, which is paid to the Teacher as a fixed salary; and they are, by the terms of their appointment, public servants, and entitled to superannuation. They form a portion of a Department of the Army governed by a Director General at the War Office, and are, therefore, not subject to the Managers of the individual school to which they are attached like the ordinary Teacher.

The Adult Schools.

General Arrangements.—Soldiers are allowed to attend these without paying any fee. The subjects of instruction are Read-

ing, Writing, and Arithmetic, with military accounts, and in addition to these, occasionally for the more advanced pupils, History, Geography, Algebra, and some other extra subjects. No religious teaching is given by the Schoolmaster; this matter being left in the hands of the chaplain. The whole of the pupils' school-time, which amounts, when they are regular, to about an hour a day, for five days in the week, is devoted to the above-named secular subjects, and, according to the arrangements of commanding officers, it may be considered as a military duty, or taken entirely from the men's leisure time. The school is always situated at the head-quarters of the regiment or brigade to which it belongs. In the Line, it generally happens that the greater number of the men are stationed at head-quarters, but in the Artillery and Engineers they are often detached. In these cases, it is usual for them to attend the nearest Regimental School. With this exception, each Adult School is limited to educating the men of its own particular regiment or brigade; when necessary, at out-stations sanction is obtained to establish a Detachment School under an acting Schoolmaster.

Attendance not what it should be.—The attendance is not generally compulsory, either on the non-commissioned officers or privates, but the special arrangements and the indirect influence of the commanding officer may have great effect in filling the school. The enlisted boys are always obliged to attend, and, besides these, some commanding officers order the recruits and some of the lower non-commissioned officers to devote a certain time to school-work. A few willingly go to the classes, and the knowledge that without at least a fair education no one will be able, as a general rule, to obtain promotion, induces a small number to take advantage of the instruction given. In most regiments, however, the attendance is not such as might be desired. As a general rule, the school's efficiency and success depend on the commanding officer as much as on the Master. The Council of Military Education mention some cases in their Report for 1868, in which nothing but pecuniary rewards offered by the commanding officers would induce the men to attend the school.

Examination for Certificates.—As a stimulus to the soldiers, and as a means of recording their attainments, examinations are held at each school once at least, and sometimes twice, in a

year. On the results of these examinations certificates are awarded of three grades—viz., 1st, 2nd, and 3rd. To obtain a first-class certificate, reading fluently, writing a good hand, and dictation are required, together with Arithmetic, up to decimal fractions and compound proportion. An acquaintance with two extra subjects, as History, Geography, Algebra, &c., is also essential. These may be selected by the candidate. The examination in Arithmetic is advanced, and a number of the questions are framed so as to test a thorough knowledge of keeping Army Mess Ledger and Savings Bank Accounts. Readiness and quickness in these subjects are precisely what a man requires to possess when he becomes a non-commissioned officer. The second-class examination is less severe, but includes the Army Accounts in Arithmetic; while, for the third-class certificate, in addition to the Reading and Writing, the Arithmetic only goes as far as the simple rules and reduction of money. If a candidate be examined for a first-class certificate, and fail, but at the same time show sufficient knowledge in the elementary questions of the paper to qualify him to pass in the second or third class, he is allowed to do so. In the same way, if he be unsuccessful in the second paper, he may be credited with a third-class certificate. The papers worked at these examinations, set by the Inspector of Army Schools, are looked over by the Superintendent, and scheduled with the number of mistakes in each branch, and the Inspector of Army Schools settles the class of certificate to be awarded according to a regular fixed scale.

Benefit of Certificate.—The holding of the certificate does not directly benefit the soldier, either in rank or pay. It is generally merely an honorary distinction; but in some regiments and brigades commanding officers will promote none except those holding these certificates. Some other corps have a set of regimental certificates, so that a general system has not yet been established. Usually the obtaining of a third-class certificate exempts from further attendance those who are bound compulsorily to go to school, hence there is but little inducement to obtain one of a higher grade. Indirectly, proficiency in the school does no doubt tend to advance the man and bring him before the notice of his officers, as well as to qualify him for the duties of a superior position when an opportunity of promotion arises.

Payments to Teachers.—The Army Schoolmasters are trained at Chelsea Normal School, and practise, before obtaining their appointment, at the Model School attached to that Institution. They are paid a fixed salary, according to Royal Warrant, and no additional sum is allowed, however great may be the number under instruction. Under the present regulations the pay of a Schoolmaster commences at *3s.* a day, and rises *6d.* per day biennially, according to scale, to a maximum of *7s.* with the usual allowances. The continual changes in the stations of regiments militate against the carrying out of any system of payments on results, or on the average number of scholars.

Need of Education in the Army.—The need for an improved education of the British soldier is shown by the following table published for 1868, under the authority of the Council of Military Education. In that year there were in the Army Schools:

15 per cent. learning to read.
30 „ who could read easy narratives.
55 „ „ „ books of general information.
32 „ learning to write.
33 „ who were doing dictation from easy narratives.
30 „ „ „ dictation from books of general information.
35·3 „ were learning to cipher.
15·3 „ „ doing simple rules.
17·3 „ „ „ compound rules.
12·7 „ „ „ reduction of weights and measures.
11·6 „ „ „ proportion, practice, and mess accounts.
5·4 „ „ „ vulgar and decimal fractions.
·44 „ „ „ higher rules.

Condition in 1868.—The exact Educational state of the Army, as given in the Report of the Council on Military Education for 1868, was deduced from the returns of 169,214 men, and gave the following result:—

	Number returned	Percentage in 1868	Percentage in 1866
Class I. who could neither read nor write	16,010	9·46	12·25
Class II. who could read, but not write	17,924	10·59	16·12
Class III. who could read and write	124,893	73·80	65·47
Class IV. who had a superior degree of education	10,387	6·14	6·16

The percentages of 1866 were calculated on the number of soldiers for that year; and the improvement which had taken place in the interval is certainly great. This is shown even more fully in another Return, giving the percentages in the above Classes I. and II., who may be called uneducated, for the four years, 1868, 1866, 1865, 1857.

Corps	Classes I. and II., i.e. the Uneducated			
	1868	1866	1865	1857
Cavalry	10·90	19·13	19·78	24·8
Royal Artillery	18·30	20·42	19·41	40·4
Royal Engineers	1·34	3·17	3·34	3·
Military Train	24·37	24·30	38·62	32·6
Foot Guards	8·12	8·66	10·06	20·4
Infantry of the Line	23·54	33·99	35·71	44·6

Education is improving.—From these Returns it is evident that the education of the Army, although still imperfect, has of late years materially improved. The means afforded to each regiment and brigade, and the inducements and advantages which have been described, could hardly have existed as long as they have without some important benefits having been attained. It is to be hoped that the more regular attendance of the men will in some ways be secured. It may be anticipated that the means provided for education throughout the country by the recent Act will in a few years render it unnecessary for elementary instruction to be given to the adult soldier, but that he will be glad to avail himself of a superior class of school, giving instruction in subjects bearing on his military profession.

28. SCHOOLS FOR THE ORPHAN CHILDREN OF SOLDIERS.

Special Claim of Soldiers' Children.—The children of soldiers have always been regarded as having a special claim upon the country to which they belong, and those whose fathers have fallen in battle, or have succumbed under what is perhaps even more fatal—the effects of trying climates and exposure—have a peculiar demand on public sympathy. To provide for the education and training of these children, the Hibernian Military School in the Phœnix Park, Dublin, and the Royal Military Asylum, or, as it is otherwise called, the Duke of York's School, at Chelsea, have been established.

The Royal Hibernian Institution—Its History.—The Royal Hibernian Institution was commenced in 1765 by the Irish Parliament voting money for a School for the Children of Soldiers serving at Foreign Stations. In 1769 a Commission was appointed, and a Royal Charter obtained to carry out this object. A building was erected in Phœnix Park, and land to the extent of thirty-four acres was connected with it, for the accommodation of the children at the Institution, which began its work on a small scale in 1770. Amended charters were obtained in 1809, 1819, 1841, and 1846, in consequence of numerous alterations and enlargements being necessary, and the Institution now provides for about 410 children. A sum of nearly 12,000*l.*, per annum, or 28*l.* 14*s.* per head, is voted annually by Parliament for its maintenance, and in addition to this it has a small endowment.

The Royal Asylum, Chelsea—Its History.—The Royal Military Asylum, Chelsea, was originated by H.R.H. the Duke of York, in 1801, in which year the foundation stone was laid. The school was opened in 1803. It has since been enlarged on more than one occasion, and can now accommodate 500 children

The cost, which, like the Dublin Institution, is entirely defrayed by Parliament, it is impossible to separate from that of the Normal School for Training Teachers situated on part of the same premises. A sum of 12,000*l.* is taken in the Army Estimates for carrying on the two Institutions; to this must be added not less than 700*l.* a year for furniture supplied by the Board of Works, and about 2,300*l.* for clothing, which is paid for out of the general vote for the Army.

Regulations of Royal Warrant of 1846.—The rules and regulations have not been materially altered since they were settled by a Royal Warrant dated December 21, 1846. This arranged the necessary staff of officers, teachers, and servants; their salaries, and almost every detail required for the management of the Institution, and appointed a Board of Commissioners to superintend the school. A few days before this Warrant was issued, a new Charter was granted to the Royal Hibernian School in Dublin, putting it on a somewhat similar footing to the School at Chelsea.

General Direction of the Two Institutions.—The two Institutions are managed much on the same plan, and consequently remarks on the one in London will apply in principle to its sister establishment in Dublin. A Report on both schools has, for some time past, been made every two years by the Council of Military Education, to H.R.H. the Field Marshal Commanding-in-Chief, and to the Right Honourable the Secretary of State for War; this Report has been presented to Parliament, and published as a Blue Book. Since April 1, 1870, however, the Council on Military Education has ceased, and all the Educational matters connected with the Army are placed under the Director-General of Army Schools, in a similar manner to that which existed previous to 1860.

Conditions for Entrance to Schools.—Both the London and the Dublin Schools, as stated over the portico of the building at Chelsea, receive only the children of soldiers of the regular Army. Those are eligible to become candidates who have been born during their father's period of service, who are over seven and under twelve years of age, and are free from any mental or bodily defect or infirmity. Four classes of children fulfilling these conditions are received:—

1. Those who have lost both parents.
2. Those who have lost their father.
3. Those who have lost their mother.
4. Those whose fathers are on foreign service.

As may be imagined, the applications for admission are numerous, but the selection is made according to the urgency of each case; hence, all who come within Class 1 are generally pretty sure to be provided for.

Ages of Children.—The children at Chelsea vary in age from seven to fifteen, and were classified in 1869 as follows :—

From	6 to 7	years	1
	7 8	,,	27
	8 9	,,	40
	9 10	,,	66
	10 11	,,	68
	11 12	,,	64
	12 13	,,	101
	13 14	,,	78
	14 15	,,	11
		Total	456

Of late the age of admission has been somewhat raised, averaging from nine to ten. This change is approved of by some; others, however, are of opinion that, although a larger number are by this means disposed of each year, since all but the musicians leave at fourteen, yet the good derived by the children themselves is proportionately decreased. The difficulty of beginning a boy's education at the age of ten is greater than at seven or eight, and the year or two which is thus cut off from his stay at school is just the period when he would derive the greatest benefit from the instruction.

How Applications for Admission are Decided on.—The admission of children is entirely in the hands of the Commissioners of the Royal Military Asylum, who superintend the school under the Secretary of State for War. The applications are decided on the recommendations of the Commanding Officers of the Regiments in which the candidates' parents have served. The parent or guardian of each child applying for its admission is required by the terms of the Royal Warrant to sign an undertaking that such child shall remain in the Asylum so long as the Commissioners think fit. This agreement also states that when the child is of the proper age he shall be disposed of at the discretion of the Commissioners. If physically qualified, he is to be placed with his own free consent in the regular Army

as a Drummer, Trumpeter, or Bugler. If, after having volunteered, he fails to pass the medical examination, he is to be apprenticed to some trade. Those who do not volunteer for the Army are sent away to their friends, and nothing more is done for them.

School Instruction.—The instruction in the school is divided into five sections. The first is the one into which all new comers are drafted, and from this they are transferred to one of the other four, according to their qualifications. The subjects of instruction for all the children are: religious knowledge, reading, writing, English grammar, arithmetic, history, geography, drawing from models, and vocal music. The outline drawings of the elder boys show that great care is given to this subject, and that most of the pupils profit rapidly by the instruction. The religious education of the children is committed entirely to the Chaplain.

Hours Devoted to Study—Staff of Teachers.—The hours of school study each day are about four for the younger, and three and three-quarters for the elder boys, viz.: in the morning, from 9.30 to 12 with short breaks, and in the afternoon, from 2 to 3.30. The Upper Master is assisted by four Masters, and by the requisite number of Pupil Teachers or students from the Normal School, provided that not more than twenty altogether are thus engaged. These last must have served in this capacity for six months or a year before obtaining their appointments as Army Schoolmasters.

Industrial Work—Music, &c.—The industrial training of the elder boys consists in repairing the shoes and clothes of all the children in the Institution; this work is done from 4 to 6 P.M. each day. The musicians and the drummers and fifers practise, while the younger children amuse themselves in the playground. A small payment is made for the industrial work, consisting of a few pence weekly, to those boys who have worked well, and are favourably reported on. No other prize of any sort is given in the school. On March 31, 1868,

100	boys	were	being	instructed as Musicians,
68	„	„	„	Drummers and Fifers,
63	„	„	„	Tailors,
79	„	„	„	Shoemakers.

Daily Work of Children—Drill.—The boys make their own beds, and clean their own shoes, but they do not assist in washing,

cleaning the rooms, cooking, &c. Nor do they help in painting, whitewashing, or repairing any part of the premises. This work is performed entirely by regular tradesmen. A complete course of drill is carried on, and the boys can go through all the evolutions of a Regiment of the Line. The Band is in a flourishing condition, and the boys who succeed in entering it are allowed to remain a year longer at the school.

Ranks in the School.—The best conducted boys are promoted to be Lance-Corporals, Corporals, and Colour-Corporals. They are allowed *1d.*, *2d.*, and *3d.* per week. In the school drill they rank as non-commissioned officers, and take their places accordingly. They look after the smaller children, and are employed in various duties requiring trust. The stripes thus earned are highly valued, and in some instances the boys are allowed to continue to wear them when they enlist into the Army. Every boy on leaving receives a school-report card of his conduct and progress. On this is stated the classes in which he has received instruction, and his general behaviour. To those who enlist this is especially valuable, as the Army Schoolmaster, who has been trained in this same Institution, can then know exactly how to continue each boy's work in the Regimental Schools.

The Health of Children.—The health of the children is excellent, and the annual death-rate is but three in the thousand. The number on the sick list on March 31, 1868, was 8 per cent.; but a large proportion of these were only suffering from chilblains, cut fingers, and other trifling ailments. The dormitories are unusually spacious, and not less than 500 cubic feet is allowed for each bed, in which but one child sleeps. A boy Corporal is appointed for every room, the general discipline of each company of boys being under the supervision of a Serjeant.

Final Disposal of the Children.—The disposal of the children after they leave the school is a matter which gives little difficulty. The musicians remain till they are fifteen years of age, and then nearly all enter the Army Bands, where the demand far exceeds the supply. In almost every band in the service, and especially in those of the Household Brigade, the Artillery, and Engineers, may be found musicians who received their early training at the Royal Military Asylum; many of them are leading players on their instruments, and some remarkable for their superior execution. Amongst others may be mentioned

Mr. Lazarus, the great clarionet-player, though not now in the Army, who was brought up at this school, and belonged to the Guards' Band; Mr. Lawson and Mr. Hisson, the cornet-players in the Artillery Band, &c. All the other children leave at fourteen, and a considerable number enlist. In the eight years ending December 1869, the number discharged from the school was 706; of these 537 were fit for the Army, and 435 volunteered as recruits. In the two years 1868 and 1869, 150 boys left the Asylum, and of this number 135, or 90 per cent., were reported as fit for the Army, and of these 121, or 80 per cent., volunteered. When boys enter the Army from the Chelsea Duke of York Schools, they are invariably called 'Dukeys' by their companions for the rest of their career. The physical requirements for recruits are so stringent as sometimes to exclude those who are anxious to enlist. The eyesight is often found to be defective, and since good sight is more than ever required with the new long-range fire-arms, it would not be surprising if this difficulty increased. Of recruits enlisting from the Hibernian School, only 5 per cent. are found to be disqualified by physical infirmity.

After-Conduct of the Boys thus Brought up.—Those who become soldiers are reported on at regular intervals, and it is found that they turn out well. This may be best seen from the following extract from the Report by the Council of Military Education on Army Schools. It relates to 616 individuals, who were reported on in 1866–7 as serving in the Army, and who had been educated at the Royal Military Asylum. Two have risen to the rank of Commissioned Officers, 57 of Staff Serjeants and Serjeants, 3 Bandmasters, 13 Drum and Trumpet-Majors, 49 Corporals and Bombardiers, 164 Drummers and Trumpeters, 328 Privates. Their characters were given as follows: 32 exemplary, 545 very good and good; 30 indifferent, and 9 bad.

Important Use of Schools as a Means of Recruiting the Army.—These two excellent Institutions at Chelsea and Dublin are useful in no small degree by annually feeding the Army with a considerable number of highly eligible recruits already trained in the various branches of a soldier's drill. With the advantages they give, it will be acknowledged that the orphan children of soldiers of this country are not altogether unprovided for.

SCHOOLS UNDER THE DIRECTION

OF THE

SECRETARY OF STATE

FOR THE

HOME DEPARTMENT.

CERTIFIED INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.

CERTIFIED REFORMATORY SCHOOLS.

29. THE HOME DEPARTMENT.

How Connected with Education.—The Home Office, presided over by the Secretary of State for the Home Department, is not, strictly speaking, an Educational body. It has, however, the management of criminals under its jurisdiction, of whom a considerable number are juvenile offenders. Until recently, children committed to prison for the first offence were treated in the same manner as the elder and more hardened prisoners, with whom they were obliged to associate. No special provision for educating them was even contemplated.

Children not Trained until quite Recently.—To the indefatigable labours of Howard during the last century, and to those of Mrs. Fry during the early part of the present, the country is indebted for special attention having been directed to the condition of prisons, and for the measures which have been taken for the amelioration of the criminal class of the community. Notwithstanding their exertions, however, very little was done until a comparatively recent period for the improvement of the juvenile inmates of our Gaols and Bridewells. In the Report on Newgate made by the Inspectors of Prisons in the year 1836, it is stated as follows: 'The association of prisoners of all ages, and every shade of guilt, in one indiscriminate mass, is a frightful feature in the system which prevails here; the first in magnitude, and the most pernicious in effect. In this prison, we find that the young and old, the inexperienced and the practical offender, the criminal who is smitten with a conviction of his guilt, and the hardened villain whom scarcely any discipline can subdue, are congregated together, with an utter disregard to all moral distinctions, the interests of the prisoners, or the welfare of the community.'

First Action of the Home Office.—The frequent Reports of the Inspectors on this subject, and the general interest taken by the

public in the establishment of Schools and Reformatories for those who were bordering on crime, induced the Home Office in 1845 seriously to consider the question of criminal education. This led to the necessary power being obtained for granting pardons to the boys who were at Parkhurst and other prisons, on condition of their being sent to the Redhill Reformatory for a certain period. During their detention at this Institution, payments from the Treasury were made on their behalf. This system continued for some years, and simultaneously the development of Ragged and Industrial Schools under the Committee of Council was taking place. These Schools were started with the hope of preventing children from becoming criminals, whereas the Reformatories were established with a view to reclaim those who had gone a step farther, and had actually fallen into crime.

Inspectors, &c.—In 1854 the Reformatory School Act passed; and one of the Inspectors of Prisons under the Home Office was directed to inspect all such schools, and to Report on their fitness for being certified under the Act. Shortly after this, in 1857, Prison Inspectors were specially appointed by the Home Office for the task of inspecting and reporting on both the Reformatory and the Industrial Schools.

Changes in Management.—The latter, from the passing of Dunlop's Act in 1854, were partly under the Home Office, and partly under the Committee of Council, until 1861, when the Home Office undertook their entire management. Since that time no general change has been made in the administration of this branch of the Educational system of the country. The detailed regulations of Reformatory and Industrial Schools, and their effects on the criminal population, are considered in the following chapters.

30. CERTIFIED INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.

Early History.—Industrial Schools have been in existence for many years; though the chief impulse to their spread was mainly due to the example of M. de Fellenberg's School at Hofwyl, in Switzerland. The feature peculiar to them all was that they aimed at securing the attendance of the poorest and most degraded classes, and that they were either limited to giving instruction in industrial work, or combined this as an essential portion of their ordinary school exercises. There was for a long time really no distinction between Ragged and Industrial Schools, but both terms were practically synonymous.

Mr. Tremenhere's Report—Government Assistance.—In 1843, at the request of several of the supporters of such schools, Mr. Tremenhere was directed by the Committee of Council to report on the success which he considered had attended the operations of the existing Institutions. Other Reports followed in 1844 and 1845 on the Norwood School of Industry, by Mr. E. Carlton Tufnell; and in the year 1846, when the general scheme came into force for annual grants to Elementary Schools, a branch of the Minute was devoted to terms on which assistance would be given to Day Schools of Industry. By this, subject to the Committee of Council's approval of the Teacher, and the mode of Instruction, aid was given towards the rent, the cost of tools, and the Teacher's salary, of the following descriptions of schools, viz.:—

1. School Field Gardens.
2. Workshops for Trades.
3. School Kitchens and Washhouses.

Grants for Industrial Training.—This continued until 1852, when the Committee of Council reconsidered the subject of aiding in the formation of these Industrial Institutions, in the

hope of putting them somewhat on the same footing as ordinary Elementary Schools. Accordingly, a grant was made of 10*s.* a year on each student, in aid of the expenses attendant on his industrial training, in addition to the assistance towards the rent, &c., of the premises. These grants, however, were taken advantage of to a very small extent.

Committee of Council's Objections to Boarding Grants.—Two years later, when Certified Reformatory Schools were introduced, giving board and lodging to their inmates, it was represented to the Committee of Council that to offer instruction without providing food, or food and lodging, would be almost useless for the class of children contemplated to be trained in the Industrial Schools. The Committee of Council, however, considered that to extend these grants for food, without any proper means of supervising them, would expose them to great abuse, the danger being that, instead of being educational, the grants might really become merely supplementary to the poor rates.

Objections waived—Grants for Boarding.—By the Minute of June 2, 1856, the Committee of Council, however, waived these objections, and offered aid—not only as before, on rent, tools, the raw materials required, and half the salaries of the officers—but undertook to make a Capitation grant of 50*s.* a head per annum on all children boarded and lodged who did not receive the grants from the Treasury under the Reformatory Acts. It was, however, required that the schools thus aided should either belong to a Refuge or Reformatory, or be in connection with an ordinary Elementary School. Further, in order to guard against abuse, the Minute declared that 'no school should be admissible which was not industrial in its character, and unless its scholars were taken exclusively from the criminal and abandoned classes.'

Alterations in Regulations—Act of 1857.—These arrangements, however, were not satisfactory, and the commingling (often on the same premises) of criminal children under the Secretary of State, and of vagrants under the Committee of Council, was not only prejudicial to the children themselves, but required a double inspection, and a twofold administration of public funds, for almost the same object. Accordingly, on August 17, 1857, the 20 and 21 Vict., cap. 48, was passed, entitled 'An Act to make

better Provision for the Care and Education of Vagrant and Disorderly Children, and for the Extension of Industrial Schools.'

Arrangements for Certifying Industrial Schools.—The intention of the Act was to withdraw the action of the Education Department from the Reformatories, which were to continue under the management of the Home Office, and to encourage the transformation of those Ragged Schools which were organised as Asylums or Refuges into Certified Industrial Schools. It empowered the Committee of Council to certify any school, not being a Reformatory, in which industrial training was given, and in which food as well as education was provided. Children under fifteen years of age, taken into custody on a charge of vagrancy, might, if orphans and destitute, be at once sent by a justice of the peace to such a certified school. Those who were thus charged, and were not orphans, but whose parents or guardians refused to give an assurance for their good behaviour for twelve months, might also be sent to the same class of Institution, and their parents be required, according to their means, to pay for their keep any sum not exceeding 3*s.* a week. Power was also given to the managers to allow children to go home at night, provided they were boarded, and in all other respects treated the same as those who slept on the premises.

Details of State Aid.—The Minute of December 31, 1857, settled the amount of aid which the Education Department was prepared to give to these schools in carrying out the new Act of Parliament, namely, as follows :—

1. One half of the rent of the school premises.
2. One third of the cost of tools and raw material.
3. Five shillings per annum for each scholar.
4. Assistance in the purchase of books, maps and apparatus.
5. The ordinary rate of augmentation of any certificates the Teacher might hold.

These payments were made to any Industrial School which thought fit to be certified, even if it did not receive children sent by a magistrate's order to be detained there. To those which did receive such children, in addition to the above, a sum of 5*l.* each per annum was granted. This was raised the following year to 7*l.* 10*s.* In schools with over forty children, a payment was made on account of each pupil trained as a Teacher ; and in some cases, building grants, instead of an allowance for rent,

were also given. This last was limited to a maximum of 30*l.* for each bed, for which proper accommodation was provided.

Transfer of Schools to Home Department.—The 23 and 24 Vict., cap. 108, provided that the management of the Schools under this Act should be transferred entirely to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, and from the passing of this Act the Committee of Council has ceased to make grants, or in any way to aid Industrial Schools.

Difficulty of Carrying out the Act—Alterations.—The provisions of the Act above detailed were, however, both under the Home Office and the Education Department almost inoperative. In 1860 only 19 schools had been certified, and but 200 children were being instructed in them under a magistrate's order. The reason of this failure was, that the conditions on which the children were to be detained were so vague, and the course prescribed for the magistrates to take, when sending them to the school, was so circuitous, that in but few cases could they be carried out. To rectify this, Sir George C. Lewis prepared a Bill, which, mainly by his influence, was passed in 1861. This to a very great extent met the difficulty, and the Schools slowly increased throughout the country, numbering thirty at the end of 1866. The Bill remained in force as an experimental measure for five years, when it was renewed with certain modifications and improvements, and all schools of this description are now regulated by the Industrial Schools Act, 1866.

Classes of Children in Industrial Schools.—The children under instruction in Certified Industrial Schools may be divided into four classes:—

1. Those who are apparently under fourteen years of age, and who have been sent *under a warrant from a magistrate or two justices,* on account of—
   - (*a*) Begging or receiving alms in the streets.
   - (*b*) Having been found wandering about without proper guardianship or home.
   - (*c*) Having been found destitute, either as orphans, or the children of imprisoned criminals.
   - (*d*) Having been found in the company of reputed thieves.

2. Those under twelve who have been charged before a magistrate with an offence punishable by imprisonment, but who have not been convicted of felony.

3. Those apparently under fourteen who have been represented before a magistrate by their parents as too unruly to be controlled at home.

4. Those apparently under fourteen who are refractory in the Workhouse or the Pauper School, or whose parents (one or both) have been convicted of crime, and punished with penal servitude.

In all these cases, a magistrate has power to send such children for a certain time to a Certified Industrial School; but the period of detention must in no case extend beyond the time when the child attains the age of sixteen years.

Objects Sought to be Attained—Ages, &c.—The object aimed at in these regulations is to remove children from temptation and evil company, at an age when they are most susceptible for good, and while habits of industry and usefulness may still be engrafted. As such training is effected better at an early age, and as it is a condition of entrance into an Industrial School that the children should not have been convicted of felony, it is not surprising to find that they are taken in considerably younger than at the Reformatory Schools. The average ages of 2,488 children were as follows :—

	Per Cent.
Under 7 years of age	3·7
Between 7 and 9 years of age	21·0
9 11 ,,	30·8
11 13 ,,	33·8
Above 13 years of age	10·6

Proportion who were illegitimate	3
who had lost both parents	12
one parent	40
been wholly deserted	11
one or both parents destitute or criminals	3
parents living, and able to take care of them	30

Advantages of these Schools—Compulsory Attendance—Require to be Combined.—A large number of the inmates being thus received at an early age, and the attendance being compulsory, and subject to no interference on the part of parents or others, it follows that these Schools have great advantages over such Institutions as the one at Hanwell, where the pupils are constantly coming and going. In another respect, however, they labour under a disadvantage, and that is from their having so small a number of pupils. At the 69 Schools respecting which the details are published in the annual Blue Book, there was, in 1868, an attendance of 8,659, or an average of 125 at each

school. This number is too small for a well-organised Industrial School; but when the larger Institutions are taken away from the calculation, such as the Middlesex School, with 732 pupils; the Kirkdale, with 549; and ten others, each with more than 200 pupils, the average attendance at the remaining 59 schools is reduced to 77. Some, indeed, have as few as 50, 40, 28, 26, 17, and even 8 pupils. The staff of Teachers in a school with 8 pupils is two, and that with 28 (Shustoke) as many as four. At Leeds, with an average attendance of 221 children, a staff of eight only is required, at a cost, for salaries and rations, of 198*l.* 12*s.* 5*d.*, or eighteen shillings per head. The four officers to look after the 28 boys at Shustoke cost no less than 99*l.* 4*s.* 5*d.*, or over 3*l.* 10*s.* per head.

Nothing shows more clearly the disadvantage of small schools than the disproportionate cost of the officers, to say nothing of the advantage of numbers, in promoting rapidity of instruction and in increasing its efficiency. The cost of officers' pay and rations at the Gem Street School, with 77 pupils, amounts to 423*l.* 8*s.* 10*d.*; whilst at the Somerset School, with 70 pupils, it is only 183*l.* 2*s.* 1*d.* Numerous cases of a similar description could be pointed out. It would seem that as the children are not able to be removed, it would be much cheaper and would add materially to their efficiency to combine these schools into a few large model Institutions.

Management — Income.—The management of these Schools is left chiefly in the hands of Local Committees, subject to the inspection of the Home Office. Their income is derived from the following sources:—

(*a*) Treasury allowance.

(*b*) Payments from the parents of some of the children.

(*c*) Payments from the parochial boards on account of children detained on their application.

(*d*) Contributions from rates.

(*e*) Private subscriptions, legacies, &c.

(*f*) Payments from voluntary inmates.

(*g*) Profits on industrial departments.

By the Industrial Schools Act, 1866, the Treasury is empowered to contribute from time to time, as the Secretary of State shall think fit, from sums voted by Parliament towards the custody and maintenance of children in Certified Industrial Schools. The amount varies. In Scotland it is 4*s.* 6*d.* per

head per week, but at most other places in England it is fixed at 5*s*. The parents' contribution in no case can exceed the sum of 5*s*. per head per week, though it is, as a rule, very much less, and in many cases the parents are too poor to allow of its being enforced at all. The parochial Board's payment for those children whom it has been instrumental in handing over to the Certified School is a matter of arrangement between that body and the managers, subject to the approval of the Poor Law Board. The contribution from the rates of the parish from which the child is received is a considerable item in the receipts, amounting, at Clifton and in many other places, to as much as 1*s*. per head per week. The subscriptions, &c., form the largest source of income next to the Treasury payments, and correspond to the local assistance obtained by most National and other Schools. The profits on the industrial departments amounted, in all the Schools in 1868, to 4,830*l*. The fact of there being a decided pecuniary profit derived from the industrial work is of itself satisfactory.

Authority for Additional Buildings.—When additional buildings are required for any school the authority of the Secretary of State has to be obtained in each case, and contributions towards the expense of building, establishing, or acquiring land for such schools may be made, on certain conditions, from the county and borough rates.

Rules to be Approved by Secretary of State.—The rules for each Institution have to be printed, and must be approved by the Secretary of State, and every school has to be inspected annually by the Home Office Inspector. Religious instruction is given, and many of the schools are entirely for Roman Catholic children. In cases where the religious persuasion of a child is different from that of the generality of the pupils a minister of his own particular sect may visit him at certain times for the purpose of imparting religious instruction.

The Licence System—Punishments.—The Licence System is largely in operation, and its extension is a sign that the work and training are really sound and effective. By this plan, a child, after he or she has served eighteen months in the school, may, at the discretion of the Managers, be sent to live with some trustworthy person who is willing to take charge of him or her. By misconduct, the licence may be withdrawn, and

absconding from such a situation is considered the same as absconding from the school. These licences are renewable every three months, and the time thus spent is considered part of the period of detention. The punishments inflicted for serious offences are chiefly, for the elder children, short terms of imprisonment, with servitude for a term of years at a Reformatory School.

Statistics of Schools.—The largest schools are situated in the following places:—

	Children
Middlesex, at Feltham	732
Kirkdale, Liverpool	549
Hull	478
Glasgow	446
Liverpool (Institute School)	330
Glasgow	305
Newcastle	254
Aberdeen	250
Edinburgh	250
Manchester	226
Liverpool (St. George's Roman Catholic)	225
Leeds	221

Schools have also been established on board ships, where the boys are trained as sailors: the 'Havannah,' at Cardiff, with 108 pupils; the 'Wellesley,' at South Shields, with 46 pupils; the 'Southampton,' at Hull, with 17 pupils; and the 'Formidable,' at Bristol, with 98 pupils. The success of this plan of converting old-fashioned ships into Training Institutions renders it probable that their number may be considerably increased.

The Bristol School.—As a specimen of the working of one of the smaller Industrial Schools, a brief account of that situated at Clifton Wood, Bristol, which educates 107 boys, may be given. The school premises are situated close to the Floating Harbour at Bristol, in a busy part of the town, and are somewhat cramped for room. These Schools are conducted entirely on the half-time system, and receive children from the city of Bristol and county of Gloucester, together with some from Stafford.

Industrial Work—Profit on all Branches.—The industrial work pursued is—

1. Tailoring.
2. Shoemaking.
3. Brushmaking.
4. Laundry-work.

In all these branches a considerable profit is made, after deducting the whole cost of material and tools, and likewise the wages of the Teacher. Forty boys are employed in the tailoring department, and they make the whole of the clothes for the School, as also the uniforms for the band of the Volunteer Rifle Corps. The net profit in this branch last year was 91*l.* 12*s.* 9*d.* Eighteen boys are employed in making boots and shoes for the School, and last year their work realised a profit of 21*l.* 2*s.* 7*d.*; that is to say, had these articles been purchased, they would have cost that sum over and above the outlay on the materials, and the wages of the Teachers. The brushmaking business is conducted somewhat differently, as the manufactured articles are of no use to the School. It is the practice for a manufacturer to send the materials, and for the boys to make them into the style of brush required. By this means the School runs no risk, and ample employment is given at a remunerative rate. During the year 1869 a sum of 111*l.* 19*s.* 5*d.* was paid for making brushes, a profit being realised of 74*l.* 0*s.* 3*d.* to the Institution. The laundry is also considered an industrial department; and since this work has been done by the boys themselves, a large saving has been effected, besides useful work being found for the children. The profit for last year was 31*l.* 16*s.* From this it appears that the total net profit to the funds of the School accruing from the industrial departments, in the year 1869, was 218*l.* 11*s.* 7*d.*, just 11 per cent. of the entire cost of the Institution.

Plan of giving Children a Pecuniary Interest.—This great success may be partly attributed to the excellent plan of giving the children themselves an interest in their work. In all cases, part of the profit goes to the boy; and as the amount depends upon the number of articles he has produced, the earnings of each are strictly on results. The money thus gained is deposited in the Savings Bank, and on the boy leaving, it is given to him as a help towards his expenses in starting in life. Several, by this means, have accumulated 4*l.* or 5*l.* Five of the most deserving boys received during last year their freedom on the licence system, which has been previously described; and, up to the present time, the Managers report that in only one instance has the privilege been abused.

Drum and Fife Band.—A drum and fife band, composed of the children of the School, has been formed, and its efficiency is so

well known, that on several occasions urgent requests have been made for the loan of it at fêtes, &c. The Managers, however, wisely think that it is hardly advisable to allow the boys to accept such invitations, when they would be removed from the eye of their officers, and be liable to get into mischief. The Superintendent considers that, with such children, a band is an essential part of the Educational arrangements; tending as it does to infuse a lively spirit into their work, and to relieve the monotony of the daily routine. It is also useful in assisting in the systematic drill which is carried on.

Course of Instruction.—The subjects of instruction, apart from industrial training, are necessarily elementary, and are confined to Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic, although the rules of the Committee state that other subjects may be added according as the limited time at the disposal of the boys, and their capacities, may permit. In cases where boys show a superior amount of intelligence, the course may be somewhat extended, though the principal object of the School is *Industrial Training*, with a view to form habits of diligence, neatness, order, and general usefulness.

Punishments.—The punishments necessary to maintain discipline are left to the Superintendent, but he is required to report them to the Committee. During 1869, thirty were inflicted, consisting of forfeiture of rewards and privileges, reduction of food, separate confinement, and, for the severest offences, moderate personal correction with a common school-rod or cane.

Expenses of the School.—The expenses in 1869 amounted to 1,986*l.* 5*s.* 9*d.*, or at the rate of 18*l.* 11*s.* 2*d.* per head. From this must be deducted the sum of 2*l.* 1*s.*, the profits on industrial work. Under the present excellent management, it would seem probable that, were the size of the School increased, the cost might be considerably less, and not exceed that of the famous Institution, not far distant, conducted by Mr. Müller. Within a quarter of a mile of this Institution there are two others precisely similar; the one at Park Row, for sixty-nine boys, and the other at Cotham Road, for twenty-eight girls, each requiring the expense of a separate staff, rental, &c. The cost might be considerably lessened, and the efficiency of the Schools increased, were the three united.

Permanent Results on the Children.—The results of the training

DRILL AT HANWELL DISTRICT SCHOOL

(*See* page 293)

on the children in their after-life are certainly satisfactory, though the fruits do not seem to be so great as at the large Pauper Schools of Hanwell, Norwood, &c. This may probably be accounted for from the fact that, the average age of the children on their admission being greater at Clifton than at Hanwell, they have, unfortunately, in too many cases, had the seeds of crime sown in them before entering the Institution. The number, however, who are permanently rescued from a life of villainy, is very great, being not less than eighty to eighty-five per cent. From a return made of those who left this School in the years 1865, 1866, and 1867, it appeared that thirty-one were doing well; five were doubtful; four had been committed to prison; one to a Reformatory; three had disappeared; two were dead; total, forty-six. Of the five doubtful cases, and the three who had disappeared, the larger number were subsequently found to be doing well, so that really only five of the forty-six were known to have been trained in vain.

All Children of the Class should be in Industrial Schools.—In conclusion, it may be affirmed that these Certified Industrial Schools supply a most important want, and that their rapid extension is highly desirable. Were schools created—some perhaps being but *day* schools, as originally contemplated—sufficient to contain all the children in the kingdom who come under the first and second categories of those at present in the existing Institutions, and were the law not permissive, *but obligatory*, that all such children should be sent to them, it would seem that a great part of the work sought to be achieved by the provisions of the new Education Act would be accomplished.

31. CERTIFIED REFORMATORY SCHOOLS.

Origin of such Schools.—Schools having for their object the reclamation of juvenile offenders have long been established by private philanthropy. As far back as 1790 one such Institution, since removed to Redhill, was formed for taking charge of the children of criminals executed at the Old Bailey. Others, variously designated, but having very much the same object, have been set on foot in many parts of the country since that time.

First Schools.—There seems to be some doubt as to who originated Reformatory Schools. John Falk, of Dantzic, started one in his native town in 1813; and this is perhaps the first which excited much attention. In 1824 a large establishment was opened in Berlin, and about that time systematic endeavours were made in the same direction in the United States. Several years afterwards M. Demety established one in France, shortly before Government aid was granted in this country for supporting these Institutions. The essential difference between Reformatory and Industrial Schools, which are closely allied, is, that the Reformatories are limited to children who have been convicted of an offence punishable with imprisonment or penal servitude; whereas the Industrial Schools are for those whose position specially exposes them to temptation to crime, but who have not yet been convicted.

Government Aid.—For many years Reformatory Schools did not receive any aid from the public funds. About 1846 they were allowed grants in a similar manner to ordinary Elementary Schools, subject to conditions very much like those imposed on Schools for Industry, under the Education Department.

Commencement of Present System.—The 17 and 18 Vict., c. 86, was the Act by which these Institutions were regulated, some-

what under their present system. By this, it was ordered that the Secretary of State should be empowered to certify schools, if, in the opinion of the Inspector, they were fitted for the reception of children of the abandoned classes; and payments were to be made by the Treasury towards the cost of food, clothing, and rent. The first school certified under this Act, in August 1854, was that at Saltley, near Birmingham, established by the exertions and liberal assistance of Mr. Adderley. In that year seven, and in 1855 ten, were formed, and certified according to the provision of the Act of Parliament.

System of Public Aid.—The passing of this Act led to the Committee of Council reconsidering its operation as regarded these Schools. Accordingly on June 2, 1858, a Minute was issued offering grants to schools where children of the criminal classes might be reformed, by means of an efficient Industrial Training. In this Minute, the Committee of Council offered to pay half of the rent of the premises, one-third of the cost of tools and raw material required in teaching; to make grants towards the cost of books, maps, &c.; and also to apply a sum of 35*l.* towards the expense of each person trained as a teacher, who was boarded and lodged in the Reformatory, during a period of twelve months. In addition to this, half the salaries of the Master and Assistant Masters was offered, together with 2*l.* 10*s.* per annum for each child fed and taught at the school, and on whose account no other allowance from the Treasury was received.

Institutions Eligible for Aid.—These grants were made both to the large Institutions, under the inspection and assistance of the Secretary of State, and also to the smaller ones, variously named 'Asylums,' 'Homes,' 'Refuges,' 'Ragged Schools,' and the like, with this exception, that the aid towards Training Masters was confined to the first section.

Change of Administration.—These regulations continued in force but a short time, and were cancelled in the following year, when all grants from the Education Department to Reformatory Schools ceased, with the exception of those made for the training of teachers. These were, however, never largely taken advantage of. From that time the whole management has been conducted by the Secretary of State for the Home Department, who has issued an annual Report concerning the schools, drawn up by an Inspector specially appointed to visit them.

Several Acts of Parliament have from time to time been passed, with a view to render the system of working Reformatory Schools more simple and more effectual. Their present action is based on the 'Reformatory Schools Act' of 1866, which was passed on the same day as, and as a companion to, the 'Certified Industrial Schools Act' of that year. The same Inspector visits both sets of schools.

Certifying Schools.—By this Act it is lawful for any school, established for the better training of youthful offenders, to apply to the Home Secretary to become a Certified Reformatory School. After it has been inspected and reported on by the Reformatory School Inspector, the Secretary of State may grant a certificate, and the school is then eligible to receive children under the 1866 Act. When thus placed under the Home Office any alterations in the rules require the sanction of the Secretary of State; and the certificate may be withdrawn, should it at any time be considered that the regulations are not properly carried out.

Conditions under which Children are sent.—The conditions as to the commitments of children to Reformatory Schools are laid down in the Act above referred to. By these, any offender who, in the judgment of the magistrate or court before whom he is charged, is under the age of sixteen years, and who is convicted of an offence punishable with imprisonment or penal servitude, and is sentenced to be imprisoned for at least ten days, may be sent, at the expiration of the period of imprisonment, to a Certified Reformatory School for at least two, but not more than five, years. Children under ten years of age are, however, not to be sent to such a school unless they have been previously charged with some crime punishable with imprisonment or penal servitude; or unless they have been sentenced in England by a Judge of Assize or Court of General or Quarter Sessions; or in Scotland by a Circuit Court of Justiciary, or by the Sheriff. This is to prevent very young children, who have been led astray for the first time, from mixing with older and more habitual offenders, and their punishment being made to act as a means of hardening instead of reclaiming them.

Religious Instruction.—Regulations in the Act provide for children being sent to schools conducted, as far as possible, in accordance with the religious persuasion of their parents; and

Institutions have been established under the management of most of the leading Nonconformist bodies. Where, however, this is not practicable, ministers of religion may visit the children belonging to their denomination, at specified and convenient hours, for the purpose of imparting religious instruction.

Statistics.—The number of these Schools in England, up to the end of 1868, was 64—that is, 36 for boys, and 14 for girls; in Scotland, 8 for boys, and 6 for girls. They contained 6,248 children: namely—In Protestant schools, 2,967 boys, and 694 girls, in England; 781 boys, and 187 girls, in Scotland. In Roman Catholic schools, 1,052 boys, and 186 girls, in England; 272 boys, and 109 girls, in Scotland.

Ages.—The number admitted to all the Schools during the year 1868 was 1,649; that is, 1,319 boys, and 330 girls; and the percentages of the ages of these children were as follows:—

	Boys	Girls
Under 10 years	1·28	·60
From 10 to 12 years . . .	15·60	15·15
12 14 ,, . . .	39·27	39·09
14 16 ,, . . .	43·74	45·15

Criminal Status.—The criminal status is shown by the number of previous convictions. It stood thus:—

	Percentage	
	Boys	Girls
Not before convicted . . .	48·82	77·27
Once ,, . . .	34·34	17·87
Twice ,, . . .	11·06	3·03
Three times ,, . . .	4·09	1·51
Four times ,, . . .	·83	·03
Five times and upwards . . .	·83	...

From these facts it would appear that the average age of the girls on entering the schools is greater than that of the boys; but that, nevertheless, their criminal status, as judged of from the number of times they have been previously convicted, is considerably lower. It is an interesting fact to note the difference between the criminal status of the children admitted in 1868, and that of those admitted in 1858, as shown by Mr. Sydney Turner's interesting report:—

Category	Number actually Committed in 1858	Number in each Category which would have been Admitted in 1868 if the Scale of 1858 had been Preserved	Number actually Admitted in each Category in 1868
Not before convicted . .	395	646	899
Once ,, . .	311	508	512
Twice ,, . .	148	242	156
Thrice ,, . .	70	114	59
Four times and upwards .	85	139	23
Total	1,009	1,649	1,649

Decrease of Crime, and Increase of Offenders.—There can be no doubt, therefore, that juvenile crime has decreased in intensity, though, unfortunately, the total number of offenders under sixteen years of age has considerably increased since 1860, as will be seen from the following table :—

Juvenile Offenders under 16 Years of Age.

Years	England and Wales	Scotland	Total
1860	8,029	1,062	9,091
1861	8,801	1,212	10,013
1862	8,349	1,120	9,469
1863	8,459	1,075	9,534
1864	8,857	1,036	9,893
1865	9,640	1,041	10,681
1866	9,356	1,061	10,417
1867	9,631	1,070	10,701
1868	10,079	1,186	11,265

Juvenile Offenders.—It is much to be regretted that, of these 11,265 criminal children under sixteen, only rather more than half, or 6,248, are in Reformatory Schools. In England, Wales, and Scotland together, the number of criminals under sixteen, as compared with the number of adult criminals, is about in the proportion of one to fifteen ; but in England and Wales alone, it is as one to thirteen ; whilst in Scotland alone, it is but one to twenty-two.

Licence System.—The regulations concerning the Licence System at the Reformatories are similar to those in force at the Industrial Schools. In 1868, there were 749 boys, and 78 girls, thus satisfactorily disposed of.

Combination of Schools.—The remarks made concerning the

advisability of combining Industrial Schools into larger Institutions apply equally to Reformatory Schools. Comparatively few provide for more than 100 children. The largest, namely that at Redhill, contains on an average 300. At this Reformatory the average number of children to each officer is a little over nine, but in many places it is much larger, as is shown by the following table computed from the Report for 1869:—

Schools	Number of Children	Number of Officers	Number of Children to each Officer
Monmouth	19	3	6·3
Dorset	42	3	14
Hants	54	7	7·7
Liverpool Farm	111	9	12·3
Kingswood	125	11	11·3
Brook Green	131	11	11·9
Wandsworth	134	14	9·5
North-Eastern	157	13	12
Market Weighton	211	18	11·6
Mount St. Bernard	258	23	11·2
Redhill	280	33	8·4*

Variations in Cost.—The cost per head varies at different Institutions apparently without reference to the expensiveness of the locality, being as low as 11*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.* at Toxteth Park, Liverpool, with 48 girls, and as high as 37*l.* 18*s.* 9*d.* in Glasgow, with 129 boys. Even deducting the somewhat exceptional loss on industrial work, namely 5*l.* 7*s.* 1*d.* per head, the cost of each child at this latter Institution still amounts to 32*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.* Considering that a large part, if not all, of the cost of these Schools falls on the public, and that the children are not liable to be removed when once admitted, it would seem clearly advisable to concentrate these establishments in cheap and healthy neighbourhoods. It is reasonable to suppose that, if at Toxteth Park, with 48 children, each costs but 11*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.*, large Institutions with 1,000 children or more might be conducted at the same, or even at a slightly less, rate. The average cost per head for all the Reformatory Schools is 18*l.* 19*s.* 10*d.*; and were this, by some better organisation, reduced to, say, 11*l.* 19*s.* 10*d.*, which is more than each child at Toxteth Park costs, a saving of no less than 43,736*l.* per annum would be effected, a sum sufficient to provide for 3,740 more children than are at present benefited, or nearly all the remaining juvenile offenders under sixteen years of age.

* It should be stated that in this, every Official is included, even a Messenger.

Results of Training.—The results of the Schools, as is found invariably the case with Institutions combining mental and physical training, are highly satisfactory. Of the 11,402 children discharged up to the end of 1868, only 554, or 4·8 per cent., were re-convicted. Here, again, great variations exist in different schools. Thus:—

Of the boys:—

At the Monmouth School	16·6	per cent. were re-convicted.
Clarence Ship	15	,, ,,
Parkhead School	14·6	,, ,,
Leeds ,,	11	,, ,,
Glamorgan ,,	10·2	,, ,,
Berks ,,	None	,,
Sunderland ,,	None	,,
Hants ,,	None	,,
Leicester ,,	None	,,
Northampton ,,	None	,,

Of the girls:—

At the Dalry School	12	per cent. were re-convicted.
Paisley ,,	8·8	,, ,,
Rescue ,,	None	,,
Ipswich ,,	None	,,

It is also found that fewer girls than boys are re-convicted, the figures being:—

	Boys	Girls
England	4·41	2·96
Scotland	8·37	5·5

The Scotch Schools are not so successful as the English, nor do the Roman Catholic Institutions produce results equal to the Protestant ones, as 7·3 per cent. of the children from the former are re-convicted, to 4·2 from the latter.

After-Occupation of Children.—During the year 1868, 1,300 children were discharged from the sixty-four Reformatory Schools; that is, 1,032 boys and 268 girls. Their occupation, showing the percentage under each category, is given in the following table:—

	Boys	Girls
For employment	31·10	47·01
Returned to friends	29·74	40·67
Emigrated	9·88	...
Sent to sea	15·79	...
Enlisted	1·26	...
Discharged on account of disease	1·26	2·61
Discharged as incorrigible, or to penal servitude	·58	1·49
Transferred to other schools	1·74	1·49
Died	3·10	3·35
Absconded, and sentence expired	5·03	3·35

Redhill School—History.—The Reformatory School at Redhill is one of the best, and it is the largest Institution of this description in the country. It was founded in St. George's Fields, Southwark, about the year 1790, its principal purpose being, as before stated, to take charge of the children of criminals executed at the Old Bailey. In those days it must be remembered that a large number of persons were hung for comparatively small offences, and consequently the number of children left absolutely destitute was considerable. Of late years it has been converted into an ordinary Reformatory Institution, where farming is the chief occupation. The character of the children provided for is also changed, as they are now all criminals, and not merely, as formerly, the children of such.

Premises of School.—The School Farm consists of 300 acres, 40 of which are rented, and is situated in a beautiful locality about a mile and a half from Redhill Junction. The buildings comprise the Chaplain's house, chapel, hall, Secretary's house, infirmary, laundry, bakery, and five distinct houses, named Queen's-house, Gladstone's-house, Garston's-house, Waterland's-house, and Gurney's-house. The arrangements of the land and buildings will be best understood by a reference to the plan at page 152. The School began work at Redhill in 1849 with two houses. The rest have been built from time to time. Two of them, Gladstone's in 1856, and Gurney's in 1860, were founded by private liberality. Each of these houses contains accommodation for about sixty boys, and is quite a distinct school, having a separate Master and independent domestic arrangements, so that the whole Institution must be considered as comprised of five different schools under one Head Master.

Course of Training.—The mental training of the boys does not occupy much of their time, being limited to three hours every alternate day in summer, and rather more in winter; the rest of the time is entirely taken up with industrial occupation. Of the 78 new boys admitted in 1869—

34 could neither read nor write.
12 could read only very imperfectly.
11 could read and write imperfectly.
20 could read and write fairly.
1 could read and write well.

The occupations of the boys are as follows :—

Field	204 boys
Cow-house boys	14 ,,
Shepherds	2 ,,
Stable	3 ,,
Garden	10 ,,
Brickfield	16 ,,
Tailors	13 ,,
Shoemakers	11 ,,
Carpenters	3 ,,
Blacksmiths	3 ,,
Bakers	2 ,,
Bricklayers' labourers	1 ,,
House-boys	13 ,,
Laundry	3 ,,
Cooks' boys	2 ,,
Total	300 ,,

Mode of Work—Payments to Boys.—The work is done in gangs of boys, under an industrial trainer, who reports every week to the Master the manner in which each boy has behaved, and a payment varying from *2d.* to *4d.* is accordingly allowed. The field labour is also measured up every week, and paid for at a fixed price. This money is kept in a separate account for each boy, who is permitted to spend it on certain articles. No boy, however, may have any money in his possession at all, but must, on pain of forfeiting all his earnings, give up to the Master any sum which may be presented to him by friends or otherwise, his account being credited with all such items. Postage-stamps, periodical publications, hair-oil, gloves, treacle for puddings, expense of holidays, &c., are the usual items of expenditure. The boys' balances vary in amount from a shilling or two to as much as a sovereign. The total amount thus paid the boys for labour was, in 1869, no less than 194*l.* 19*s.* 4*d.* On leaving the School for employment, this becomes the property of the boy, but it frequently remains in the hands of the Chaplain for some time, being drawn upon as occasion requires. By this means the after history of each inmate is often known for some years. In addition to this pay, an allowance of 1*d.* a week is made for each good-conduct stripe. These stripes are awarded to those who, for a certain period, have not received any bad marks; and their names, with the number of months they have been on the good list, is printed on a board, placed over the fire-place in each school. The honorary pay for high-standing, in 1869, was 30*l.* 9*s.* 10*d.*

Clothes, &c., made on Premises.—The shoes, as also the cloth clothes, of the boys are made, and the repairs done, on the pre-

mises. The socks are purchased, but entirely mended by the pupils. The boys do the washing, the baking, the whitewashing and painting, as well as all repairs required on the premises, or by the tools and implements employed on the farm. There is a carpenter's and blacksmith's shop attached, under the superintendence of skilled labourers. Every boy, with but very few exceptions, is also taught to milk easily and quickly. In all these branches of work the same plan of payment as in the farming is adopted, and is very successful.

Punishments—Running Away—How Prevented.—Punishments are not so numerous as, from the class of boys, one might be led to expect. They consist of confinement in a cell, and, in extreme cases, of which six occurred last year, flogging is resorted to. One great temptation the boys have, on their first joining the School, is to desert. They have been confined in prison, and when they see the perfect freedom of the open country they are tempted to run away. To prevent this by supervision would be both difficult and costly, but a simple method for putting a stop to anything of the sort is adopted, and answers excellently. If a boy runs away, every one in the school is fined 4*d.*, and all the costs incurred in recapturing the fugitive are borne by the house to which he belongs. It is argued that no one runs away without his friends knowing of it, and consequently, by each having an interest in preventing desertion, all do their best to stop its occurrence. In 1869 only five cases of the sort happened, and these put the boys in the different houses to a cost of 4*l.* 11*s.* 5*d.*

Fines—Privation of Privileges as Punishments.—Fines are also imposed for misconduct, and the holiday of two days, which is granted to any boy who earns a position by good behaviour and who has respectable friends, is liable to be stopped altogether, reduced or increased by a day, according as he has received bad or good marks. No boy, unless he has a good-conduct stripe, is allowed to go off the premises for a message; and by encouragements, warnings, and appeals to the pocket, which latter are usually the strongest, the discipline of the school is maintained without resorting to severer measures. A systematic drill is carried on twice a week, and a good band has been formed among the boys, both of which measures conduce greatly to the improved discipline of the establishment.

Health—Drainage.—The health of the pupils is remarkably

good, the infirmary being used but for eight cases in the year, and no death has occurred among the three hundred children for nearly four years. The entire drainage is now on the dry-earth system, which answers admirably. When the Schools were first started, an elaborate plan of water drainage existed, but this was found so defective as to lead to the adaptation of the buildings to the earth method, the whole refuse being applied directly to the farm lands.

Cost.—The cost of the Institution is somewhat high, amounting to 19*l.* 7*s.* 9*d.* per head, after allowing for the profits on the industrial work of 3*l.* 3*s.* per head. Of this only about 4*s.* 8*d.* is for rent, as the premises, except forty acres, are free. The cost for food per week is 3*s.* 4½*d.* per head, and the clothing 8¼*d.*, leaving the large sum of over 8*l.* 10*s.* per annum for other expenses. The industrial pursuits are all remunerative, but more particularly so that of brick-making, which, though carried on only during the summer months, produced a profit in 1868 of 94*l.* 7*s.* 4*d.* on about 250,000 bricks which were manufactured.

Calculations as to Results.—Considering that all the children have been convicted, some indeed many times (in one instance a boy from London, of from twelve to fourteen years of age, who could neither read nor write, had been sentenced no less than ten times), it may fairly be presumed that practically they would all, if left to themselves, become permanent criminals, and be at least unproductive burdens on, if not destructive agents to society. It is not too much to say that all who turn out well are so many thieves converted into useful citizens. In 1866, 1867, and 1868, at the Redhill School alone, 242 children were discharged, 110 emigrated, and 132 were disposed of at home. Of these—

	Emigrants	Home Disposals	Percentage on the whole 242
Had not been re-convicted up to December 31, 1869 . .	93·63	71·97	81·82
Had been re-convicted . .	6·36	24·24	16·11
Not known	none unknown	3·78	2·06

Emigration Encouraged.—Every effort is made to induce the boys to emigrate, and thus give them the opportunity of a fresh start in life, under circumstances where the stigma attached to their

early crime will not act against their chance of success. In the case of orphans the difficulty is not great, but it is necessary to get the parents' consent when there are any, and in most cases these feel that, by sending their children away, all hope of assistance from them is at an end. The percentage of failures above given shows that the temptations to boys when living with their relations are more than four times greater than when removed to a foreign land, away from their evil influences. In some Institutions, as, for instance at Redhill, great care is taken to secure that those boys who do emigrate, on reaching their new foreign home, shall fall amongst persons likely to do what they can to keep them from again getting into an evil course of life. A regular agency is in this way kept up, and periodical reports received of the doings of the lads. Judging from these, and the letters which are often addressed both to the Teachers and others, there can be no question but that the most satisfactory results are obtained. It would seem also that the colonists in no way object to such emigrants, who arrive not only strong and able to work, but willing and anxious to take up with anything which presents itself to them. Nothing could be a better preparation for this sort of life than the training given to the boys at Redhill.

Practical Saving Effected.—The numbers as they stand above show that more than 80 per cent. are really reclaimed, and as the outlay at the School is nearly 20*l.* a head, the average cost of each reformed boy is 25*l.* a year. As the term at the School is usually three years, it follows that his total burden to the country is 75*l.* Had he been left alone, the best thing that he could have done for the community would have been to remain in the workhouse, for, say twenty years, at a charge of at least 7*s.* per week. He would, therefore, have cost 365*l.*; but, in all probability, he would, as a professional thief, have wasted ten times that amount.

Conclusion.—The Reformatory Schools, though doubtless capable of improvement and better organisation, are evidently conferring a great and most lasting benefit on the community. Their success depends on firm discipline, honest and hard work, coupled with moral and religious training, so arranged as to bring out the better natures of the pupils, which cannot at so tender an age be always dead. As with efficient Workhouse Schools, it is to be hoped that their extension may gradually be

the means of reducing the number of children requiring to be detained in them. The results hitherto obtained are so satisfactory and encouraging, that every effort should be made to include in Reformatory Schools all the juvenile criminals under the prescribed age.

SCHOOLS UNDER THE DIRECTION

OF THE

POOR LAW BOARD.

WORKHOUSE SCHOOLS.

DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

32. THE POOR LAW BOARD.

Commencement of the Training of Paupers.—The systematic education of the children of paupers domiciled in workhouses has only been introduced since the New Poor Law came into operation, in 1834. The daily collecting of the children under the care of an elder pauper previous to that date, although nominally called School, could not be considered as giving them any education, and amounted to little more than keeping the children together, and preventing them from falling into mischief.

Action of New Poor Law.—Under the New Poor Law, however, the subject of education became one of paramount importance. The Board very soon showed itself convinced that this must be one of the chief means to improve the condition of the poor, and to reduce the number of paupers. The various efforts which were made with a view to these desirable ends are recorded in the following chapters.

Parliamentary Grants—Committee of Council.—The management of Pauper Schools was for some years confided to the Officers of the Unions themselves, subject to the general control of the Poor Law Board. When, in 1846, Parliament thought fit to make grants towards the salaries of Workhouse Teachers, which were to be paid to them independently of the Guardians, the Poor Law Board considered that the duty of a systematic inspection should be performed by Government. At the same time the Board was of opinion that this would more properly devolve upon that department which had been specially created for superintending the education of the country, rather than upon the Poor Law Officers engaged with other urgent and completely different claims on their time and attention. The assistance of the Committee of Council was accordingly obtained,

and the appointment and direction of the Inspectors was left to that department. On December 21, 1846, four Inspectors were appointed, who were to have authority to examine the condition of Schools for the Education of Pauper Children. The Committee of Council further decided to ascertain the character and qualifications of the persons employed as Schoolmasters and Mistresses, in order that unfit and incompetent persons might be gradually got rid of. They also determined to take such measures, that in future the amount of each Teacher's salary should depend on his or her qualification, as well as upon the extent of the duties which he or she had to perform.

Changes in Management.—For many years subsequent to this period, the whole management of the educational arrangements of Unions was carried on conjointly by the Poor Law Board and the Committee of Council. The Reports of the Inspectors were printed for some years in a separate volume, with all the Minutes and regulations concerning the payments to the Teachers from the public funds. In the course of 1863, shortly after the changes made in Elementary Schools by the Revised Code, which, however, did not affect the Masters of Pauper Schools, an arrangement was made at the desire of the Committee of Council for placing the superintendence and examination of Workhouse and District Schools exclusively under the Poor Law Board. The Inspectors employed under the direction of the Committee of Council were accordingly, from March 31, 1863, placed under that department.

Reasons for Transfer from Committee of Council.—That which led to this determination on the part of the Committee of Council was the consideration that as the *loco parentis* had to be supplied in Pauper Schools wholly by the State—the children being boarded and lodged as well as educated—it was necessary that special safeguards should be provided to prevent the children of well-to-do persons being saddled on the community. Such safeguards formed a natural part of the work of the Poor Law Board in their relation with paupers, and could easily be applied to check abuses of this description in schools. The principles upon which pauper education had been conducted up to that time under the Committee of Council, were in no way affected or varied by the transfer of the Schools to the complete control of the Poor Law Board, but were maintained exactly as if no change had taken place.

Poor Law Board an Important Educational Department.—The education of pauper children in all its branches is accordingly now conducted by the Poor Law Board, which has consequently become an important branch of the Educational machinery of the country.

33. WORKHOUSE SCHOOLS.

The Condition of Pauper Children.—Pauper children must necessarily have formed a large proportion of those who were affected by the laws first enacted for the relief of the poor. These laws came into operation soon after the suppression of the religious houses, which for so many years formed the only organised means by which assistance was rendered to the destitute. For a lengthened period, however, nothing was done which could give these pitiable children, as a body, even the slightest hope of rising out of the miserable condition in which they had been born. Their position, it should be remembered, is peculiarly hard. Their poverty is in no way their own fault, but they inherit misery, and, in but too many instances, receive the germs of disease and physical deformity, from the results of the imprudence or misconduct of those who have been the means of bringing them into existence.

Training the only Hope—Tendency to Extremes.—Without some special training, it is almost impossible that such children can ever emerge from their dependent position. It is therefore clearly desirable, if from no higher motive than that of economy, so to train them as to give them some chance of earning their own living. Looking thus at the position of pauper children, philanthropic persons are apt to allow their humane feelings to mislead them. In their earnest desire to relieve distress, they would propose a system of training which would be fraught with much danger, by giving advantages much above those obtainable by the children of the honest hard-working poor.

Object of the Education and its Extent.—It is true that the education within the reach of many of the poor, particularly those of the agricultural class, is so deficient, that the State being burdened with these pauper children, and standing, to a certain

extent, *in loco parentis*, could not take so low a standard as a basis for their improvement. The training should be such that, with comforts sufficient for health and strength, every effort should be made to secure that the children shall become useful and profitable members of society, and that when they are launched into the world the public purse shall be relieved from further cost on their behalf.

Example of Opinion at Bedford in 1836. A somewhat typical case bearing on this subject is reported from the Bedford Union in 1836, and inserted in the Poor Law Commissioners' Blue Book for that year. The Guardians requested authority to limit the education of the workhouse children to *reading only*. This was not done on the score of economy, but on principle, as they did not wish to give greater advantages to the inmates of the workhouse than to the poor children out of it. In those days, it must be remembered that schools for the working-classes were less plentiful and efficient than they are now, and Schoolmasters had about that time been appointed to nearly every Union, in accordance with the new Workhouse Regulations. The decision of the Commissioners on the subject, though recognising the importance of the view taken by the Guardians, was, that instruction in writing should be given, inasmuch as it was 'of the greatest importance that the workhouse children should be so taught as to give them the greatest attainable chance of earning an honest and independent maintenance for the remainder of their lives: and the Commissioners could not conceal from themselves that the acquisition of the power of writing greatly increased this chance.'

Evidence of Mr. Tufnell.—The subject is also dilated upon fully and clearly by Mr. Tufnell, in his evidence before the Poor Law Inquiry Commissioners. He states: 'Though I have no doubt that in many of these Schools (referring more particularly to District Schools) we instruct the paupers to a higher extent than is done in ordinary schools, yet it is almost impossible that we should not do it—for this reason: that in ordinary schools they get out at the age of ten or eleven, while we cannot get them out before they are fourteen, because they are most of them utterly friendless orphans, or deserted, and therefore their instruction goes on to a much later period. If a pauper child were turned out of school at the age of fourteen, with no more intellectual and industrial knowledge than is usually obtained

by a labourer's child when he leaves school, as he usually does at twelve or sooner, the chances are that such a child would either become a pauper or a criminal. It should be remembered that this class of children are either utterly friendless, or what is worse, have friends and relations whom it is better that they should avoid. Hence the necessity, both as a measure of humanity and of economy, of giving them such a moral and industrial education as shall enable them to earn an independent livelihood without the parental aid which an honest labourer's child can count on.'

Effect of Pauper Education on Superior Class.—Concerning the moral effect of giving a good education to paupers on those who are nearest to them in social position, and who, in consequence of this proximity, if great advantages were held out to paupers, might be supposed to be in danger of being tempted to throw themselves on the parish, the same authority observes: 'I do not believe that there is any foundation whatever for that apprehension; in fact, I may say, that I am quite certain there is not any foundation for it, because there are vast numbers of children running about London whom we should be very happy to have in the Pauper Schools, but who will not come, because they dislike the discipline of them; and it is very rarely that the parent of a child in the lowest class has any idea of the prospective benefits of education.'

Old Regulations did Nothing for Children's Education.—Under the regulations of the Old Poor Law System, children in the workhouses were neither taught nor trained. Mr. Edward Senior, in his Report on the Training of Pauper Children in 1840, states this very clearly. The children in the workhouses mixed with the adults, who were mostly of the very outcasts of society and the instruction imparted of a pernicious nature, was in no way counteracted by better precept. The children were usually placed under the care of an adult pauper, who was supposed to look after them and keep them out of mischief; the greater number of these pauper nurses (for teachers they could not be called) could neither read nor write. No attention whatever was paid to religious teaching, and the only sort of information which the young had to interest them, was a rehearsal of the exciting deeds of the poacher and the smuggler, or the life and adventures of abandoned females. With such a nursery the

miserable after-history of the pauper child was not a matter of speculation but of painful certainty.

Compulsory Apprenticeship.—This pernicious course was pursued until each boy or girl was old enough to be apprenticed to some trade. As an invariable rule this was done *out of the parish*, the parochial authorities hoping thereby to free themselves for the future from the burden of their maintenance by shifting it on their neighbours, the authorities knowing by experience that their ultimate return to the Union was almost certain. Nothing could show more clearly than this, that in the opinion of the parish officers at least, the bringing up of the children in the workhouses necessarily led to their being permanent paupers. Under proper management, the large fees paid for apprenticing would have gone a long way towards instructing the children and rendering them useful. This system of apprenticeship was compulsory on the person to whom the child was sent, according to the old Act of Queen Elizabeth entitled 'an Act for the Relief of the Poor,' and under that of King William III. entitled 'an Act for Supplying some Defects in the Laws for the Relief of the Poor of this Kingdom.' It was not until 1844 that these and all other Acts on the same subject were repealed. After this period persons could refuse, if they thought proper, to receive a pauper child as an apprentice.

Improvements under Gilbert's Act.—The arrangements in workhouse management which came in force under Gilbert's Act were to a certain extent improvements, though they really did little or nothing for the children. Juveniles were not separated from adults, either for instruction or otherwise, nor were separate buildings erected for them.

New Poor Law—Schoolmasters—Instruction.—The change in the Poor Law System was productive of benefit, inasmuch as provision was made by the Commissioners for the appointment of a paid Schoolmaster, and in many cases also a Schoolmistress, to each Union; and what was even of more importance, the internal arrangements of the Union-house were so ordered that the children to a great extent were separated from the adults. Owing to the schools, however, being in the same buildings as the workhouses, great difficulties were experienced in this particular. The course of instruction laid down was, Reading, Writing and Arithmetic, and Religious Knowledge. The boys were required

to cultivate the workhouse grounds, and the girls to be brought up to household employments.

Inefficient Teachers—Smallness of Salary.—This instruction and training was, however, more nominal than real. Considerable difficulty was experienced in obtaining the services of qualified Masters and Mistresses. Those in the Unions at that time were usually very incompetent, being for the most part persons who had been unsuccessful in other callings. This was not to be wondered at, inasmuch as the annual salary rarely exceeded 20*l.* and rations, and the position under the Master of the Workhouse was anything but agreeable to a person of superior attainments. Mr. Hall, in his Report for 1838, states that the proficiency of the scholars was very unsatisfactory, and the probability of their progressive improvement very remote. The great defect observable in all the Workhouse Schools was the want of system and regularity. The mode of classification of the scholars was singular. In some schools it was made according to age, in others according to size, in others according to length of stay in the workhouse, and in but few according to proficiency.

Education considered Unimportant—But few Children at each School.—The whole management of the Workhouse Schools was at this time based on the supposition that 'the education of the pauper children was a matter of secondary importance in the economy of the Union.' Added to this was the serious drawback that the comparatively small number of children in each Union, and the manner in which they continually changed, rendered it impossible, even had it been wished, to carry out a course of efficient instruction.

Little Progress made up to about 1840.—The difficulty experienced, and the unsatisfactory progress made, are shown from the remarks in the Annual Reports of the Commissioners about this time. In their Eighth Report they state: 'Our increasing and earnest attention will be given in furtherance of this object, in which we are unable to say that such progress has yet been made as to preclude the necessity for further exertion on the part of the several Boards of Guardians, as well as the Commissioners.'

General Working of Workhouse Schools.—The general result of the operation of the Workhouse Schools is given in a passage of a volume published by the Poor Law Commissioners in 1841 on

the training of children, and also referred to in 'Suggestions on Popular Education' by Mr. Senior. 'The moral and religious influences of education are not without many obstructions, when the school is within the workhouse, even when it is conducted by an efficient Teacher; but under ordinary circumstances, when the deficiencies of the Schoolmaster are combined with the pernicious influence of the associations inseparable from residence in a workhouse inhabited by a class whose indigence is often the sign of a low moral condition, we are convinced that we cannot hope for much beneficial influence from the school on the future characters and habits of the children, and we fear much evil and disaster may ensue. The children in workhouses, even in those in which the classification is maintained with the greatest strictness, are more or less associated with the women. The adult single women in the house have often children, whom they are of course permitted to see, and the girls cannot learn any domestic duty without coming occasionally in contact with this class, who are much employed in household work. Such associations, even where much vigilance exists; are, we are convinced, polluting.'

District Schools as a Remedy—Difficulties.—These serious objections to the Workhouse Schools led Sir J. K. Shuttleworth, Mr. E. Carlton Tufnell, and other gentlemen connected with the system of the Poor Law, to advocate earnestly the creation of District Schools. Various difficulties, however, have existed in the formation of School Districts, and in fact up to the present day they have been established in but six or seven places.

Workhouse Schools still contain most Pauper Children.—The Workhouse Schools have consequently continued to be the agency by which the larger number of pauper children are educated, though in many places the recommendation of the Commissioners has been taken of providing separate buildings for school purposes away from the Union. This plan is certainly the next best to that of a District School, but in not a few instances these separate buildings have been placed close to, instead of some miles from, the Union-house, thus largely defeating their main object. In other places, however, they have worked satisfactorily, particularly at the Limehouse School of Industry for the Stepney Union, which appears to have been the first separate school. In large Unions, as for example those

of Liverpool and Stepney, they differ in no essential educational feature from District Schools.

Inefficiency of Teachers—Government Aid.—Another objection to schools in the workhouse, even under the improvements effected by the New Poor Law, was the difficulty of obtaining efficient Teachers. The appointment of these officers lay with the Guardians, who as a rule offered salaries sufficient perhaps for merely 'looking after the children,' but not such as Teachers of any experience would accept. To remedy this, it was determined by the Government of the day to render the Teachers' salaries altogether independent of the local authorities. This was accomplished in the year 1846, when a vote of 15,000*l.* (soon increased to 30,000*l.*) was taken on the Estimates for the purpose of paying the whole of the salaries of the Workhouse Schoolmasters and Mistresses.

Grants Independent of Guardians, &c.—These payments were made altogether independently of the Board of Guardians, and the object which the Government had in view in granting them, as stated by Sir Robert Peel in proposing the vote, was, that they might tend to improve the character of the Workhouse Schools. The Circular which communicated this important decision to the Unions also stated that it would probably be desirable in many cases to obtain more efficient Teachers and to pay them better. In those places where, from false principles of economy or otherwise, no Teacher had hitherto been placed in charge of the children, the Board of Guardians was urged to appoint one. As the whole cost was now to fall on the Public Exchequer, it was difficult to understand how any excuse could be made for the neglect of so obvious a duty. It was further laid down, that this payment would only be made if the schools were efficient, and to secure a regular system of inspection, it was proposed that an Officer of the Education Department should be appointed, whose attention should be exclusively devoted to Workhouse Schools, and who should report annually on them to that department.

Immediate Benefit of State Grants.—This regulation for the payment of the Teachers' salaries direct from the Exchequer, which has continued in operation from that time to the present, is undoubtedly a most important step towards the improvement

of Workhouse Schools. After the first year of its operation, and in the last Report published by the Poor Law Commissioners, it was stated—'The influence of the Parliamentary Grant for the salaries of Schoolmasters and Schoolmistresses is beginning to be felt, and has enabled us to press upon the Guardians with success many improvements in the management of the schools, and in the instruction of the children educated in them.'

Examinations and Certificates for Teachers in Workhouses. — As no comprehensive efforts had up to this time been made for raising the general standard of qualifications of the Workhouse Schoolmaster, this became one of the chief objects of the regulations in the succeeding year. The Committee of Council arranged to hold periodical examinations, at which certificates should be awarded to both Masters and Mistresses, carrying with them certain money values, according to their merit. These payments were only to be made if the school buildings were suitable, and fitting apartments provided for the Teacher, who it was considered should, whenever possible, reside on the premises. He was to rank on a par with the Master of the Workhouse, and was to be allowed the usual grants for apprenticing certain of his scholars as Pupil Teachers, in order to assist him both in instruction and in maintaining order in the school.

Encouragements for Supplying Books, Maps, &c.—Arrangements were also made at this time for enabling the schools to obtain at the cheapest rate a supply of the most eligible and useful books and apparatus. In order to secure a due provision of these necessary articles, it was laid down in the regulations, that if a Board of Guardians refused to provide what was recommended by the Inspector, the Poor Law Board would withhold the grant, and thus throw the whole cost of the Teachers' salary on the funds of the Union. A careful list of books and maps was shortly afterwards prepared, and an agent appointed through whom they could be obtained at a considerable reduction in price.

Changes Gradually Introduced.—It was of necessity some little time before the change of system became general which required all Masters who earned Government Grants to hold a certificate of competency. It was not considered desirable to dismiss the existing Teachers, and but few were sufficiently educated to come for the examinations, and thus take advantage of the regulations.

Mode of Applying Government Grants.—The amount of payment to Teachers, based on the plan of certificate, and varying according to the qualification of each, was regulated by Circular of May 6, 1850. It was made partly in the shape of a fixed salary, and partly in the shape of a bonus, according to the number of children in the school. The fixed payment ranged from 30*l.* for a full certificate of competency to 20*l.* for a probationary one. The result payments made the maximum salary of the Teacher under the most favourable circumstances about double his certificate allowance. They varied from 5*s.* to 3*s.* per head on the average number of children in the school during the twelve months. The salary of Mistresses was four-fifths that paid to Masters with corresponding qualifications. The remuneration, therefore, of the Workhouse Teacher was considerably below that of a Teacher in the ordinary Elementary School, though the office of the former was far less attractive.

Result System not Applicable to Workhouse Schools—Various Evidences.—The mode of paying Teachers of Workhouse Schools partly according to the number of children under their instruction, produced a directly opposite result to that intended. This was pointed out by Mr. Ruddock, in 1857. He says, 'A good school out of doors may fill, because it is a good school. A good school in the workhouse must empty if it is good.' The consequence was that the interest of a teacher was diametrically opposed to his duty, and inasmuch as his salary was almost as low as it was possible to fix it, it was not surprising if he succumbed to the temptation of keeping the workhouse children as long as he could on his roll. Mr. Tufnell quotes the words of a Teacher in his Report for 1852, giving the condition in which he found a new school to which he had been appointed. 'I find that no more than five boys are remembered to have left the school to go to places, and of course it (the school) was quite failing to answer its purpose. Instead of dispauperising the children, it nursed them for the able-bodied men's yard and the county prison. The following statement was given me by one of the able-bodied men, aged twenty-one, who has himself been in the school. Replying to my questions, he counted thirty-eight besides himself who had gone from the school to the able-bodied class; of these thirty-nine, two are transported for ten years, four for fifteen years, and one for twenty years; twelve have been imprisoned, and only seven are doing pretty well.

Some of these thirty-nine are still almost permanently chargeable. It appears, therefore, that the boys were kept in the school until they were too old for it, and too old to be put into situations such as are usually obtained by lads from school.' Dr. Temple (the present Bishop of Exeter) also gave similar testimony. He says—'In proportion as he (the Master) was zealous, and got them (the pupils) on well, and interested himself to find them situations, so did his yearly average attendance decrease, and with it his remuneration.'

Present Working of the Result System.—In spite of these objections, the system has continued in force until the present day, and, in the opinion of several of those who were much opposed to it at the time of its introduction, it has not been found to have the injurious effects which were anticipated. The existing scale, and the mode of paying on results, may be judged of from the following table, kindly furnished by Mr. E. C. Tufnell :—

PAYMENT FROM THE PARLIAMENTARY GRANT

RANK OF CERTIFICATE		MASTERS		MISTRESSES		Sum allowed in respect of each Scholar, in addition to the Minimum Allowance
		Minimum Allowance from the Grant	Maximum Allowance from the Grant	Minimum Allowance from the Grant	Maximum Allowance from the Grant	
		£	£	£	£	s.
Efficiency . . .	1	30	60	24	48	12
	2	30	55	24	44	11
	3	30	50	24	40	10
Competency . .	1	25	45	20	36	7
	2	25	40	20	32	6
	3	25	35	20	28	5
Probation . . .	1	20	30	16	24	4
	2	20	25	16	20	3
	3	20	20	16	16	...
Permission . . .		15	15	12	12	...

Kneller Hall Training College a Failure.—The supply of Teachers for Workhouse Schools was not even yet adequate to the demand. It was consequently proposed to open a Training College expressly for educating a class of persons for this duty. Kneller Hall was accordingly started in 1852, under the management of Dr. Temple as principal. It was, however, not successful, and only continued in operation for three years.

This was mainly due to the fact that competent persons, after being trained, were not willing to become Workhouse Teachers, as their qualifications enabled them to earn far better salaries elsewhere. It seems probable that had the District School Scheme been extended throughout the country, as was then hoped would be the case, this Institution would not have been a failure. These schools would have given a fair scope to the energy of the Teachers, besides placing them in a good position.

Industrial Occupations.—The plan of combining industrial training, as part of the education of the children in workhouses, was considered with attention, and introduced into many of the larger Unions, about the year 1855, but the impossibility of having a thoroughly efficient system in each small school was seriously felt, and showed the additional advantage of combining Unions into districts for educational purposes. In many places pieces of land were taken near the workhouse, and the children employed upon them with considerable advantage, both as regards their health and their mental powers. It was found, indeed, that the boys often got on faster during the fewer hours devoted to study, when they worked with the spade or rake during the remainder of the time, than when their whole attention was confined to mental improvement.

Action of Next Five Years.—For the next five years little or no alteration took place in the system pursued at the Workhouse Schools. They appeared to be somewhat increasing both in number and efficiency, and were reported on each year by the Poor Law Board.

Deficiency of Industrial Training.— The industrial training, above referred to, appears however to have gradually become little more than a sham in many respects. The Teachers, if efficient, remained but a short time at the school, and even then they did not attend to the industrial teaching, inasmuch as but few of them understood anything about it. The consequence was, that the duty fell upon the Workhouse Master, and he as a rule objected to the extra trouble of teaching the children how to use the spade, &c., and preferred that the few acres should be cultivated by adult labour, which was always available. Sir J. Walsham reported in 1855 that such was the case, and in consequence the Poor Law Board laid down in 1857 that aid should be given from the Parliamentary Grant towards the payment of the salaries of certain industrial instructors. These grants had

hitherto been confined to the regular Teachers, but the change was made with the hope that it would tend to encourage the training of children in industrial pursuits. The Inspectors of the Education Department in their Annual Reports usually remarked on the 'stagnant dulness of the education of the workhouses,' and although the improvement since the introduction of the New Poor Law had been great, the small numbers in each school, and the workhouse associations of petty Unions, were, and even still are, an impassable barrier to success.

Separate Schools for several Unions.—The regulations under several new Acts of Parliament, by which the children of one Union may, with the consent of the Poor Law Board, be combined for education with the children of another Union, in cases where it is not possible to create a District School, have tended to encourage the formation of separate buildings away from the workhouse premises.

Superintendence wholly Transferred to Poor Law Board in 1863.—With the exception that in 1863 the inspection and superintendence were transferred from the control of the Committee of Council on Education, to that of the Poor Law Board, no important alterations have been made in the regulations since that time.

Mr. Cumin's Description of Workhouse School.—The general condition and tone of a Workhouse School at the present day is graphically described in the following extract from the Report prepared by Mr. Cumin, one of the Assistant Commissioners of the Education Commission in 1861. He states: 'I know nothing more pathetic than a Workhouse School. No human creatures ought to excite a more lively sympathy. Without home, without parents, often without a single friend, they are alone in the world from the moment of their birth. Whilst one of the pauper nurses at Bedminster was sorting the infants in order to distinguish the orphans and the deserted from the rest, I asked the name of one that was rolling about the floor. "Fanny Step," was the reply. "Why 'Fanny Step'?" I rejoined. "Because, Sir, she was found on a doorstep." Such is the history of many a workhouse girl. Doomed by necessity never to know the meaning of that familiar word home—cut off from the exercise of the ordinary affections—many of them diseased in body and feeble in mind—these poor children exhibit little of the vigour and joyousness of youth. Listless and subservient in manner,

they seem to be broken down by misfortune before they have entered upon life. It is difficult to convey a definite idea of a child brought up from its infancy in the workhouse. The following anecdote may help to realise it:—I was examining the Bedminster Workhouse boys in reading, and we came to the expression, "They broke up their household." I inquired its meaning. The boy stared, and the Chaplain whispered to me, "You need not ask him that, for he never had a home." Another boy, who had not been born in the house, at once explained the phrase. Struck with this, I determined to put the question in another workhouse. I was in the girls' schoolroom at Stoke, and I desired the Mistress to select a girl who had been born in the workhouse, and another who had just come in. I put the same question to the girl who had never been out of the workhouse, "What do you mean when you say that 'A man broke up his household'?" upon which she answered that the house had been broken into by robbers. She was familiar with the idea of crime. The other girl, who had lately come in, at once answered, "He sold his furniture, and left the house."'

Inefficiency of most Workhouse Schools — Boarding out Proposal.—The condition and management of Workhouse Schools are much better at the present time than they were when the New Poor Law came into force, but they are still far from meeting the wants of the present day. As has been already stated, it is evident that fatal evils are inseparable from them as long as they continue in connection with the Union-house. Efforts are being made on all sides to adopt the system of boarding out these workhouse children in the cottages and homes of the agricultural poor; and, according to the statements of the advocates of this system, it is attended with great success. When thus disposed of, they are required to go to school in the same way as the children of their foster-parents. The dangers and abuses with which such a scheme is beset, in spite of the most vigilant inspection, appear so formidable that there seems but little prospect of its succeeding in providing for the thousands of children who stand in need of improvement in our large towns. Nothing but efficient District and separate schools, conducted with sound economy, is ever likely to effect permanent good. It may be hoped that the present movement on the subject of education will speedily bring about the adoption of one uniform system of bringing up workhouse children in schools totally separated from the Union-house and its associations.

34. DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

Definition and Objects.—District Schools are Institutions which have been formed for the education, in one building, of the workhouse children of several Unions. Up to the present day, they have been established in but few localities, but it may be hoped that, ere long, the inefficient schools which exist in connection with each workhouse will all be concentrated into a comparatively small number of really efficient and useful District Schools.

Commencement of System.—The many evils consequent on the association of children with adult paupers, who under the most favourable circumstances are not fit companions for the young, were frequently considered even under the old Poor Law administration. Little or nothing was done to ameliorate their condition until the new system came into operation which led to the establishment of schools and other means of improvement in each workhouse.

First Proposal to Combine Schools.—The first definite proposal to combine the separate schools of each Union, for the purpose of educating the children together on a large scale, seems to have originated in 1837 with the Committee of the House of Commons appointed to inquire into the working of the new Poor Law. This Committee recommended 'That the Poor Law Commissioners be empowered, with the consent of the Guardians, to combine parishes or Unions for the support and management of District Schools, and to regulate the distribution of the expenses of such establishments.'

Dr. Kay's Report, in 1838, in favour of District Schools.—In 1838 Dr. Kay, now better known as Sir J. Kay Shuttleworth, when an Assistant Poor Law Commissioner, wrote a Report on the Training of Pauper Children. A number of particulars were given

concerning their ignorance, the very inefficient state of the Teachers, and the great tendency of children brought up in a workhouse to spend the remainder of their days there. The name of the workhouse seemed to cling to them during their whole life, and they regarded it as their home or head-quarters, and returned to it whenever they found themselves in a difficulty.

Details of the Proposals.—The Workhouse Schools were at that time extremely bad, and it was felt that, however they might be improved, many of the objections consequent on their forming part of the Union-house must remain, and could not be obviated. Sir James Kay Shuttleworth, Mr. E. Carlton Tufnell, and others, strongly urged the formation of 'District Schools.' It was proposed that money should be raised on the security of the rates, with a sinking fund for erecting a suitable building to accommodate all the children ever likely to belong to the district embraced. The early years of each child it was thus hoped would be associated with the 'District School,' and not with the workhouse. Sir James even went so far as to propose that others besides paupers should frequent these schools, so that the origin of the poor children might be altogether lost sight of, and the stigma which attached to them, involving the loss of self-esteem, be thus removed.

Efficiency and Economy of System.—The efficiency of such a system, it was easy to see, would be far greater than that of one where every separate Union had a school of its own; moreover the cost, after allowing for an ample staff, showed a clear saving of 1*l.* per head per annum. The plan proposed was to combine a systematic course of industrial training with a fair amount of mental work. The former to be carried out, not as a means of making a profit out of the children's labour, but in order to accustom them to patient application to such appropriate work as was most likely to fit them for the discharge of the duties of that station which they would probably have to fill in after life.

Supporters of the Proposal.—In a Report published in 1838 by Mr. Richard Hall, Assistant Poor Law Commissioner, on the same subject, that gentleman strongly urged the adoption of a similar plan of forming School Districts. The Poor Law Commissioners in the same year stated that they fully concurred in the suggestions contained in these Reports, which referred to the combining of several Unions into one school, as likely to

produce a more efficient system, to secure a better class of teachers, and, in addition, to effect a reduction of expenditure.

Farming Out—Druet's Trial.—At this time it was usual, particularly in London, for children permanently lodged in the workhouses to be farmed out to contractors, some of whom took several hundred at a time. This formed a sort of District School, but it had the disadvantage that it was to the interest of the contractor to give as little instruction and as short an allowance of food as possible. It was also an object with the Guardians to reduce the contract price to the very lowest point. The result of this was that the children received but a very small amount of attention and care. Some of these establishments were undoubtedly conducted honestly, but it was evident that such a system was only a means of getting rid of the children in the cheapest manner, without regard to their welfare or improvement. Sir James, in a subsequent Report, stated that the defects apparently inseparable from contractors' establishments were such as to render their extension in the highest degree impolitic; and to induce him to think that a right regulation of such houses could only be secured by a system of incessant and painful vigilance. Their fate was completely sealed by the horrible disclosures at Druet's in 1849, where, owing to starvation and neglect, cholera broke out, and in a few days carried off 150 children. From that day to this the idea of farming children out has been discarded.

First District School.—The earliest attempt to establish a District School was made by Mr. Aubin, at his School of Industry at Norwood. It contained 1,100 children, and these were sent from several of the London Unions. The industrial training was deficient, yet it was sufficiently successful to show what might be done under an improved and extended system.

Regulations for Forming District Schools.—The important subject of pauper children's education does not appear to have ever been a popular one, and it was not until 1845 that the Act for the further Amendment of the Laws relating to the Poor in England was passed. This Act repealed the two statutes known as Jonas Hanway's Acts (2nd George III. c. 22, and 7th George III. c. 39), which made it compulsory for the metropolitan parishes to send their pauper children into the country for nurture and maintenance, and in the place of that obligation provision was

made for promoting the establishment of District Schools. It gave power to the Poor Law Commissioners to combine into School Districts unions or parishes which were not more than fifteen miles apart. If they contained fewer than 70,000 inhabitants, the Commissioners themselves had power to carry out this arrangement; but if the population exceeded that number, it was necessary for the previous consent of the Guardians to be obtained. The School was to be managed by a Board, composed of members elected by each Union in the district which had been combined, and the costs were to be shared in proportion to the number of children sent by each. Power was also given to admit children not belonging to the district, whose Guardians might be willing to send them, and pay a fixed amount for their maintenance, &c. This provision was to meet the case of small Unions, and was not to be available for parishes at a greater distance than twenty miles.

Practical Difficulties in Carrying out the Act—Amendments.—Two errors were found, however, to exist in this Act concerning the regulations for District Schools, and one was of so serious a nature as to preclude any advantage being taken of the measure. This was the restriction in the amount to be raised for school buildings, which was in no case to exceed one-fifth of the average annual expenditure for the relief of the poor. A second was the limit of fifteen miles, beyond which distance no Union and parish might combine. Both these objections were removed in 1848 by 11 and 12 Victoria, cap. lxxxii.; but during the interval no increase was made in the District Schools throughout the country. The immediate effect of the alteration was the combination of Unions in Hampshire and Surrey for educational purposes.

Formation of Districts very Slow.—In spite of these amended regulations the formation of District Schools was not rapid, nor, indeed, has it been so up to this day. In 1849 three were started—

1. The Central London, in the premises purchased from Mr. Aubin, at Norwood.
2. The South Metropolitan.
3. The North Surrey.

Their establishment may be traced to a certain extent to the public feeling produced by the discoveries brought to light at Druet's trial for manslaughter, and for shameful neglect of his

children at the farming establishment at Tooting, already referred to.

Regulations for Combining the Children of two Unions.—A regulation, which if properly taken advantage of might be very important and useful, was passed in 1851; viz., that embodied in 14 and 18 Vict. cap. 105, s. 6, by which the Guardians of one Union not having adequate accommodation in the Workhouse for their pauper children may make the necessary arrangement with another Union, and so combine the children of both places into one school. Thus a sort of commencement of an Educational District could be formed, having considerable advantages over the two small Workhouse Schools.

Unfortunately, however, in most cases where this has been carried out, a separate building has not been devoted to the purpose, so as to remove the School away from both Unions. In the majority of instances the children from the two places have been collected in that Union House which had the best accommodation for them, and consequently the main object of the combination has been defeated.

District and Workhouse Schools Compared.—An example of the condition in which children were received from the various Workhouse Schools, as compared with the effect of the training of a District School, is described in a letter dated January 11, 1851, from Mr. Rudge, the Chaplain of the North Surrey District School, to Mr. Tufnell, the Inspector of Metropolitan District Schools, and inserted in Mr. Senior's 'Suggestions on Popular Education.' The writer says, 'The Schools were opened in November 1850, and certainly the state, industrial and moral, in which the children came to us from the various Unions and parishes, was such as to warn us that no ordinary amount of labour and patience would be required on the part of us whose future charge they were to be. Speaking first of their acquirements in secular and religious knowledge, I found that very few indeed of the boys could give an account of the simplest facts in the Bible; only five out of the whole number could read the Irish Third Book without hesitation; only ten could do a sum in Compound Division with two figures in the divisor; none could write a single sentence from Dictation without mis-spelling almost every word of two or more syllables; and of Geography, Grammar, and History, the ignorance was universal and entire. Their conduct outside the school-room was of a piece with their

performances within. The slightest restraint exercised over them was immediately revenged by the destruction of property, a trait peculiarly workhouse. Scarcely a day passed without two or more absconding, either returning to their respective workhouses or prowling about the surrounding country. The girls were, if possible, in a lower condition than the boys. The number of children in the establishment is, at the time I am writing, 636.' Comparing this state of things with that resulting from the work of the District School, the writer continues, in the same letter, 'I will not occupy your time in detailing their present intellectual attainments, because, from your own recent inspection you are sufficiently acquainted with them. Suffice it to say that their progress, on the whole, is entirely satisfactory to me, and I think I may add to the Board of Management also. Of the *moral* effects I can speak with the utmost satisfaction. They no longer look upon labour as an irksome task, but rather as an honourable and pleasurable occupation; and I am convinced that there is not a boy in the whole School who would not shrink from a return to the Workhouse as degrading, so long as it were possible to gain a livelihood by honest industry. Their very appearance is wonderfully altered for the better. They have lost the slouching gait and dogged sullen look which formerly too clearly betokened their origin and habits.'

Transfer of District Schools from Education Department.—In 1863 the inspection of District Schools was transferred from the officers of the Education Department, and placed exclusively under the control of the Poor Law Board, whose officers the Inspectors after that date became. This alteration, however, did not in any way affect the principles on which the Schools had hitherto been conducted.

Existing District Schools.—Up to the present time the following District Schools have been established, viz.:—

1	Central London District, which provides for	1,200	children
2	Farnham.	131	,,
3	North Surrey	724	,,
4	Reading and Wokingham	124	,,
5	South-East Shropshire	165	,,
6	South Metropolitan District	1,300	,,
7	Forest Gate District	850	,,

Others are in course of formation, though so many difficulties have to be overcome in obtaining the sanction of all parties that their increase is unfortunately anything but as rapid as might be wished.

Cost of Erections.—The cost of building or adapting old premises for these schools was as follows :—

	£	s.	d.
1 Hanwell	84,000	0	0
2 Farnham	12,081	10	6
3 North Surrey	48,614	0	0
4 Reading	200	0	0
5 Shropshire	650	0	0
6 Sutton	50,600	0	0
7 Forest Gate	41,000	0	0

Varying Cost of Maintenance—Usually too High.—The annual cost of maintaining each School varies much, and in some it is so excessively high that many persons have an idea that all District Schools are really most expensive establishments, whereas, if properly managed, they should be, without doubt, considerably cheaper than the ordinary Workhouse School, to say nothing of their increased efficiency. It is to be regretted that in many cases they have thus been conducted on too expensive a scale; for to this perhaps, as much as to any legal restriction, must be attributed the slowness of their growth.

Cost per Head Compared.—The following table gives the cost per head per week at four of these Institutions, and also at the large Pauper School at Liverpool. This last, though not strictly a District School, may, for all purposes of comparison, be considered one, inasmuch as the one parish of Liverpool contains as many children as it would ever be considered desirable to combine into a district:—

School	Cost per head for Maintenance and Clothing per week	Cost per head per week for Common Charges, including Salaries, Rations of Officers, and all Expenses connected with the School	Cost per annum for each Child, omitting outlay on Building
	s. d.	s. d.	£ s. d.
1 Central London	4 1	3 $1\frac{1}{2}$	18 14 10
2 North Surrey	4 4·5	2 8·99	18 10 6
3 South Metropolitan	3 6	1 $9\frac{1}{4}$	13 14 1
4 Forest Gate	3 $2\frac{1}{2}$	3 $4\frac{1}{4}$	16 14 $6\frac{1}{2}$
5 Liverpool	2 $11\frac{3}{4}$	2 $4\frac{1}{4}$	14 0 4

The difference in the items it will be seen is very considerable. The cost at Hanwell is almost fifty per cent. more than that at Sutton; and as the latter is an excellently managed and a successful Institution, this difference must arise to a great extent from causes which could be avoided with care and economy.

The Anerley School.—The present working of these Schools may perhaps be best understood by an account of the one at Anerley, near Sydenham. It embraces the district south-west of the Thames, and includes the unions of Croydon, Kingston, Lewisham, Richmond, Wandsworth, and Clapham, to which Chelsea has been added. These six Unions comprise thirty-six parishes. As a body the children are certainly superior to those in some of the other districts, as, for instance, at Hanwell; though the shape of the heads of some indicates a very low type of physical condition. This superiority is, no doubt, accounted for by the fact that these Unions, with the exception of Chelsea, are to a certain extent rural, and the criminal element is not so strong as in the more neglected central parts of the City, from which the children at Hanwell are chiefly imported.

State in which Children are Received.—When brought from the Workhouse, the children, who vary in age from two to fourteen, are placed in the receiving ward, where they remain until it is ascertained with certainty that they have no appearance of any contagious disease. This arrangement for the School is essential, for it must be remembered that these children are oftentimes in a deplorable state when they arrive. A large percentage have to be removed at once to the Infirmary, and their physical powers somewhat restored, before anything in the way of mental training can be attempted.

Low Rate of Mortality.—By dint of care and attention, remarkable results are obtained. Many, it might be supposed, judging from their emaciated appearance, only enter the School to die; yet it is a fact that, out of the 800 children who were on the books in June 1869, when the School was over-full, only three deaths had occurred during a period of twenty-two consecutive months.

Course of Training—Half-time.—The course of training at the School is necessarily dependent somewhat on the health of each child. The system is entirely on the half-time principle; that is to say, during one day of six hours half the children devote themselves to mental study, and on the alternate days the same children have to work for ten hours at physical exercise, such as drill, digging, farming, carpentering, shoemaking, tailoring, music, singing, &c.

Instruction in Music and Singing.—Music and Singing are

regarded by Mr. Tufnell as the most important means which exist of softening these rough natures. Consequently, all are taught vocal music, and those who show any talent are instructed in the use of some instrument. By this means an excellent band has been formed, and its members, in large numbers, are annually sent out to recruit the military bands. The part-singing in the School is excellent, and no one can watch the faces of the children, when all are joining in some simple song, without being impressed with the truth of Mr. Tufnell's opinion, that music is a most humanising medicine.

Importance attached to Drill.—Drill is also a feature in the School, both for girls and boys, and to its proficiency must be attributed a large portion of the success of the pupils. Pauper children, even more than others, are unaccustomed to control and to instant obedience to orders; and it is found that a systematic drill initiates these important principles in perhaps a less galling manner than any other, and at the same time adds quickness, smartness, and tone to a class of boys and girls who are peculiarly deficient in these qualities. An illustration is given, at page 252, of the Hanwell School under instruction in drill, and also, at page 204 of the children at the same Institution marching in to dinner.

Course of Instruction.—The mental training includes the usual elementary instruction in Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, and Drawing. In the last branch considerable proficiency is attained by many, and a few cases even show that talent of unusual promise lies dormant under these rough exteriors.

Staff of Instructors.—The staff of the School, as is usual in all these Institutions, is appointed by the School Board, subject to the approval of the Poor Law Board. In addition to the Head Master and Mistress, there are two Assistants and seven Pupil Teachers, together with all the staff of mechanics and industrial trainers necessary for instructing and directing the children in their various physical occupations.

Discussion on Pupil Teacher System.- Some little time ago there was a discussion concerning the advisability of discontinuing the present system of appointing Pupil Teachers from the children in the schools, and of filling their places with a smaller number of Assistant Masters and Mistresses. The Chaplain, in a letter addressed to the Board, gives strong reasons for continuing the

present system; whilst the Clerk to the Board urged a change, on the ground of its economy and efficiency. It would seem probable that the right course would be to continue the Pupil Teacher system modified, as explained in the Superintendent's letter. This modification has been tried at Hanwell with success, and consists in taking the Pupil Teachers from a superior class, such as the children of the officers in the Institution, or tradesmen from the neighbourhood, instead of selecting them from the regular inmates of the School. These children are softer in manner, have the advantages of home influence, and are not so likely as the District School children to be despotic and tyrannical when obliged to exercise a little authority.

The Cost per Head.—The cost is a point which necessarily enters largely into the minds of all who are interested in the scheme of reforming pauper children; and, as nearly all is paid directly by the Unions, these bodies keep a jealous watch over the details. In spite of this there is, in most cases, great difficulty in preventing more being spent than is absolutely necessary and compatible with efficiency. This particular School at Anerley costs the ratepayers, including the sinking fund for the buildings, about 20*l.* per head per annum, whilst the one at Hanwell amounts to quite half as much again. By very careful management, it would be possible to reduce the lower of these sums about 25 per cent., as has been done at Liverpool.

Practical Results Produced.—The result of the working of these Schools must be considered in estimating their cost. Under the old workhouse plan, very nearly all the children returned to the gaol or the parish; in fact, they often learned their business as thieves in the recreation time, between school hours. The District Schools' returns show a different result. Every child is kept on the books for at least two years after leaving, and is visited and reported on by the Chaplain, who finds that the number who go wrong is remarkably small, and does not exceed 5 per cent. On this point Mr. Tufnell gave some interesting evidence before the Duke of Newcastle's Commission. He stated, after referring to the means he has had of coming to the conclusion: 'From these sources I know that the number of failures in these Schools are not, on the average, more than 2 or 3 per cent., and I believe that if you test the number of failures in the highest class Schools, even those frequented by the peerage, you will find a greater proportion of failures in life

than from the children of the District School. I can mention one fact connected with that. When the Poor Law was first founded, some investigation was made into the education of the pauper children of London, and it was found then that the majority of the children turned out failures, that is to say, that more than 50 per cent. of them were failures. They became either thieves or prostitutes or paupers, or something of that sort. By District Schools we have reduced that proportion to 2 or 3 per cent. instead of 50 or 60.'

Opinion of Newcastle Commission.—The Duke of Newcastle's Commission considered fully the question of District Schools, and from the evidence which it elicited they formed the opinion that their more rapid extension was most desirable. The Report states: 'The evidence given in this and the preceding section appears to us to establish the proposition that the education of pauper children ought to be conducted in District or separate Schools according to the circumstances of different Unions.' The Report continues: 'We recommend that the Poor Law Board have conferred on them the same power to order the building or hiring District School buildings which they already have to create School districts; the latter power seems to imply the former. But in the case of any Union undertaking to provide a separate School, at a sufficient distance, not less than three miles from the Workhouse, the order should be suspended and should be revoked, if the separate School were established, and certified by the Inspector of Pauper Schools to be sufficient. We would also give the Poor Law Board power to order the establishment of a separate School by any Union which they did not think fit to incorporate in a district. The preamble of the Act should state the necessity of District or separate Schools, in words throwing on the Poor Law Board the duty and the responsibility of carrying the intentions of Parliament into effect.'

Efficient and Economical District Schools the only Mode of Training Pauper Children.—Careful training to the destitute child seems to be the only sure means of reducing the regular standing army of hereditary pauperism. If such be the case, it appears essential that District Schools should take the place of the small and inefficient Workhouse Schools. To prevent their becoming an unjust burden on all classes, particularly on the hard-working poor, it is necessary that they should be based on the strictest

principles of economy; and if this were done by careful vigilance on the part of the Guardians and the members of the School Boards, the public would not be long in requiring that such Institutions should be spread throughout the country, instead of being limited, as they are at present, to some half-a-dozen places.

SCHOOLS UNDER THE INSPECTION

OF THE

COMMISSIONERS OF LUNACY.

SCHOOLS FOR IDIOTS AND IMBECILES.

35. THE COMMISSIONERS OF LUNACY.

Duties of Commissioners.—The Commissioners of Lunacy, both in England and Scotland, inspect all Institutions into which Idiots and Imbeciles are received. In this way they necessarily visit those places where the education and improvement of these persons is attempted, and the regulations which are adopted are subject to their control and direction. The main object of this is of course to prevent any injury or cruelty being inflicted on this unfortunate class, and their supervision does not extend beyond that required for ascertaining that the health and comfort of all are properly considered.

Condition of the Afflicted.—The extent to which Idiots and Imbeciles are afflicted varies very greatly. Some are as helpless as infants, and no improvement in their state can ever be anticipated. Others, with proper management, may be instructed to follow some useful occupation. It has been calculated that, of 574 cases of idiots and imbeciles,

53 were as helpless as infants.
74 „ children of two years old.
94 „ „ seven „
138 could engage in simple work with some small profit, if carefully watched and directed.
179 could nearly earn their bread.
36 could, under due discipline, maintain themselves.

Importance of Education to many Idiots.—From this it will be seen that the condition of a large number of persons of this class is such that it might be considerably ameliorated by education. This fact has for some time been evident, and, like many other branches of the educational machinery of the country, the work has been commenced and gives promise of great success. Unfortunately, however, in another respect the improvement of

Idiots and Imbeciles resembles most other educational measures, namely, that in the extent of its operations it is very much below what is required. The number of Idiots and Imbeciles in this country, as distinct from lunatics, is not known. Judging, however, from the fact that there were on January 1, 1870, 54,713 lunatics, idiots, and persons of unsound mind, it is evident that a large number of these might with advantage be under special instruction.

Not nearly all are Trained who might be.—It is difficult to determine the number of those who are in a superior position, and whose education is therefore attended to by those who can afford to pay for it. It is probable that there are but few who are thus provided for. A number of persons of weakly dispositions are believed to become idiotic or imbecile on account of their receiving defective nutrition and injudicious management when young. Many of these might no doubt, with better treatment and proper training, have been so brought up as never to have been classed in this category at all.

Idiots, &c., should be included in any General Scheme.—The influence of education and proper training on this class of the community is apparent, and this fact should not be overlooked in framing any system of National Education. It has been seen that two-fifths of them can be made nearly to earn their own living, and another fifth to do a great deal towards supporting themselves. It would therefore seem that, for commercial reasons alone, every effort should be made to provide for and systematically train all who come within this category. The special knowledge possessed by the Commissioners of Lunacy would no doubt be most important to prevent any undue strain or mental exertion being put upon pupils of this class.

36. SCHOOLS FOR IDIOTS AND IMBECILES.

Institutions for Idiots, &c.—The training and improvement of those who are congenitally deficient in intellectual power must always be a slow and difficult task. Schools for Idiots and Imbeciles exist at Earlswood, Surrey, for 496 pupils, and in Scotland, at Baldovan, for 26 boys and 10 girls; at Larbert, for 25 boys and 23 girls; and at Columbia Lodge, Liberton, for 6 boys of a somewhat superior station in life. Others are in course of formation at Lancaster and near Birmingham. A large number of paupers who fall under this category are provided for in the County Lunatic Asylums. All establishments for Idiots and Imbeciles in England and Wales are under the inspection of the Commissioners of Lunacy, whilst those in Scotland are inspected by the General Board of Commissioners in Lunacy for Scotland. The former report annually to the Lord Chancellor; and the latter, to the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

Earlswood the only Educational Institution — Regulation.—As Earlswood is unfortunately the only place in this country which at present affords a special systematic course of training and improvement on a large scale, a description of that Institution will enable the reader to judge as to what at this moment is being done in England for Idiots and Imbeciles. This Asylum was opened in the year 1847. It provides for several classes of patients. A large number are adults, sent by their relations, who bear the entire cost of their care and maintenance; others are partially paid for by private persons; whilst the remainder (who must not be paupers) are balloted for at an election among the subscribers to the Institution, and when admitted are supported entirely by private charity.

Statistics of Earlswood System.—Earlswood, in the year ending March 1869, provided for 496 pupils. Of these, 291—that is, 164

boys (including 18 infants) and 127 girls—were children under Schoolmasters and Governesses. The greater number of the free cases, namely, those who have been admitted by election, remain for five years, and are then, in some instances, either re-elected for another period of five years, or for life; but the larger number are sent back to their friends. The educational system consists of an intellectual, a physical, and an industrial training. To a considerable extent, the half-time method is adopted; a number of the inmates attending school in the morning and doing industrial work in the afternoon, or *vice versâ*.

Concerning the Boys.

Course of Instruction—Industrial Work.—To those who attend the school classes, when they first enter, the subjects of instruction are, learning to articulate properly, reading, writing, arithmetic, shopkeeping, drawing, telling the time by the clock, besides learning their own names, dressing, finger lessons, &c., and, when necessary, the deaf and dumb signs. The reading, writing, and counting are, however, subordinate subjects of instruction, as with most of the pupils considerable time has to be devoted to co-ordinating the muscular movements, without which all attempts at industrial work would be impossible. To do this, a number of finger exercises are made use of; the pupils are put through courses of drilling and gymnastics, besides other training calculated to bring into use the various muscles of the body, which in many cases have never been developed in infancy, as with ordinary children. When they are a little advanced, and begin writing and drawing, these two subjects may, to a considerable extent, be also considered as muscular exercises.

Miserable Condition of Pupils.—From the above statement the sadly deficient mental condition of many of the children may be assumed. It is found that, of 164 without any physical infirmity, on an average, 16 cannot speak at all; 30 can only utter a few sounds; 36 can speak indistinctly; 64 can speak fairly. In the knowledge of common objects, such as coins, &c., but 24 know all the coins and weights, and can calculate a little; 23 know all the coins and some weights; 23 know a few coins and weights; 29 know only a few coins; 47 know none at all. As regards reading, 20 only can read fairly; 20 can read by spelling the

A SHOP LESSON

(*See* page 303)

words ; 16 know nearly all the letters ; 39 know a few, while 51 know none, of the letters. In the use of the clock the greatest ignorance prevails. Out of 146, about 8 can tell the time to a minute ; 8 can tell it within five minutes ; 12 can tell the hours ; 14 can tell some of the hours ; 5 know twelve o'clock ; 99 cannot tell the time at all. Arithmetic is a subject which presents great difficulty ; some, up to eighteen or twenty years of age, after considerable teaching, find it impossible to add two or three figures together.

Discipline.—The discipline of the School may, perhaps, be regarded as one of the most valuable means of training and improvement ; the enforcement of order, regular habits, and systematic obedience having a powerful influence on the weak intellects of the inmates.

Collective Lessons – Shop Lessons.—The School is divided into six classes, according to the mental attainments of the pupils ; and to each class is given three lessons a-day. During the time between each lesson, the whole of the pupils collectively receive instruction in singing, drilling, and other exercises. The shop lesson is a favourite, though, to see the children attending it, it is evident that few have any idea of the most common usages of every-day life. Upon a table is fixed a pair of scales. A number of drawers, each distinctly labelled, are fitted up at the side of the room similar to the method adopted in a grocer's shop. These contain a supply of articles in most frequent use, such as tea, sugar, barley, rice, &c. Shillings, half-crowns, pence, and other coins are placed on the table, and one pupil keeps shop. The others come by turns, as if to purchase any article they fancy, which the shopman then weighs out, receives payment for, and gives the required change, as in an ordinary transaction. The lesson will be understood by a reference to the illustration on page 302.

Industrial Training.—The industrial training of the boys is commenced as soon as possible after they enter the establishment, that is, when they are physically capable. Every one does at least two and a-half hours' work a-day ; the greater number are employed either in making mats themselves, or in picking the fibre necessary for the manufacture of those articles by others. Twelve boys are constantly employed on the farm, and a much larger number during the haymaking season. The

shoes and cloth clothes are made on the premises. A large part of the washing, baking, gardening, and general housework is also performed by the boys. In some few cases sufficient progress is attained, particularly among the carpenters, matmakers, and shoemakers, to enable the pupil, in a year or two, to earn nearly sufficient to pay the expenses of his keep. Few, however, would be likely to obtain work from an ordinary employer, as they generally have some peculiarity which would render them unfit to associate with other workmen.

Concerning the Girls.

Instruction and Condition of Girls.—The general instruction given to the girls is, with the exception of industrial training, very similar to that given to the boys. Their condition may be judged of from the fact, that, of 148, 11 hem and sew well; 18 hem very fairly; 34 hem indifferently; 6 can do fancy work; 76 cannot work at all. 66 can use knife and fork; 24 can use spoon and fork; 48 can use a spoon; 7 have to be fed. The household lessons, as they are called, are looked upon with greater interest than most others. The schoolroom has the appearance of a kitchen, with dresser furnished with cups, saucers, plates, &c. The girls are then taught how to lay the cloth, wait at table, clear away, and wash up the tea-things, &c.

Girls' Industrial Work.—It is found to be more difficult to provide occupation for the girls than for the boys, for comparatively few are capable of doing needlework, or of undertaking household situations in private families. Wherever possible, the cooking and ordinary kitchen duties are done by the girls, as also the bed-making and scrubbing of the establishment. In all these cases, when thus employed, they require constant and careful supervision.

Cost of Institution.—The cost of the School it is not easy to estimate apart from that of the Institution generally. The whole expenditure, without any allowance for rent, in 1868, was 22,849*l.* 7*s.* 8*d.* for 472 residents, which gives an outlay of 48*l.* 8*s.* per head per annum. Of this sum no less than 3,000*l.*, or 6*l.* 7*s.* per head, is spent in the necessary advertising and collecting machinery. This must be taken into account, although it can hardly be said to form a part of the cost of

the educational system. Another circumstance which renders the cost per head high, is that a number of the inmates are provided each with a separate attendant, and are indulged with special luxuries in the shape of food and domestic accommodation. These extras, though paid for by the friends of the individuals themselves, are included in the general account.

Cost per Head per Week.—Those who are at school do not entail so much expense as the older patients, and it is estimated that the cost of the 291 pupils, not counting the item for collecting, is about 13*s.* 6*d.* per head per week.

Weak Point of System.—The period usually spent in the Institution, as before stated, is five years, at the close of which the idiot is sent back to his home, unless he has the good fortune to be one of the few who are re-elected for another term or for life. Those who leave are generally lost sight of, and this appears to be a weak point in the administration of the Institution. The result of the working of the charity should be such, that in some way *permanent* benefit is conferred on the pupils. During their stay there can be no doubt but that they are happy; and it seems to be a providential arrangement that these poor creatures are contented with very little, if that little be accompanied with kindness. The five years' training to those who fall back either on the parish or their friends is really of little lasting benefit. They may be able to work, to a certain extent, at a trade; but their infirmity is such that few employers could make use of their services; and, consequently, when they are living at home in enforced idleness, a large part of the work which has been expended on them is thrown away.

Examples of Improvement.—As regards their mental improvement in the various branches of ordinary education, it would seem that many are too deficient really to obtain any benefit from it. The following examples of cases of individual improvement are taken from the last year's Report:—

1. A boy, admitted in May 1860, aged 8. Could speak imperfectly; knew no letters; could only make strokes irregularly; could not count; knew no figures, coins, weights, or colours. Discontinued attending school in July 1868. He could then read fairly; could write words in a copybook; count up to 12, and add a little; knew the figures, writing letters, coins, weights, colours; and could tell the hours by the clock; is now at work all day as a tailor.

2. A boy, admitted January 1864, aged 18. Speech very imperfect; knew no letters; could only make a letter or two on the slate; not count, or add; knew no writing letters, coins, weights, or colours. Discontinued attending school in January 1869, to devote the whole of his time to shoemaking. Knew all the letters, and could read slowly; wrote words in copybook; knew all the coins, weights, and colours, and could tell the hours by the clock.

3. A boy, admitted May 1864, aged 9. Speech indistinct; could make strokes and letter O on slate; count to 7; not spell; knew no coins, weights, or colours. Now reads fairly in Testament; spells most words; writes sentences neatly in copybook; counts to 63, and does easy sums from board; can tell the hours by the clock; knows all the coins, weights, and primitive colours; draws outlines correctly. Used to tear his clothes, but has improved also in this respect.

4. A girl, admitted in November 1862. Knew a few letters; had no idea of counting or writing; and could only use a spoon. She now can read an easy narrative; count to 100; writes words of two syllables; knows five colours; can use knife and fork well; and has much improved in conduct.

5. A girl, admitted in May 1863. Could not speak or write. She now says many words distinctly, and tries to speak; forms several letters on slate, and has a very good idea of hemming.

6. A girl, admitted in May 1865. Speech very imperfect; could only make strokes, count to 5, and could not use a thimble. She now can read simple words; write the same in a copybook; knows some figures, and can hem neatly.

Practical Use of Such Results.—These cases, which are the only ones given in the Report, are no doubt favourable specimens, and they show the enormous difficulty in teaching the pupils theoretical knowledge. Case 1, for example, who was in the school eight years, was only taught to read fairly, write words in copybooks, count up to 12, &c., but at the same time, and probably much sooner, he was taught to be a tailor. Similarly with Nos. 5 and 6. A person who can only count up to 12 after eight years' instruction can never make any practical use of arithmetic. This deficiency in grasping any theoretical idea, which must be apparent after a trial of a few months, would seem to show that in such a case so much mental training is, to a great extent, thrown away.

Greater Success of Industrial Work—Suggestions.—The indus-

trial training, on the other hand, is in most cases successful. Under the excellent management at present existing it has even been made to a considerable extent remunerative. It would therefore seem that if such subjects as arithmetic, which are not required in assisting in discipline or physical training, were dispensed with, except for those few who appear likely to profit by such instruction, the whole time after teaching the pupils to speak, dress, &c., could with advantage be given to industrial occupation. Instead of pupils being entirely cut off from connection with the Institution at the end of five years, this or a shorter period would suffice to serve as a time for training and learning some trade. After this they might be drafted into a separate or branch Institution for industrial pursuits, such as rug, basket, and sieve making, tailoring for our soldiers and police, and other occupations now carried on on a smaller scale by them only while they are in the Institution. By such a system, instead of falling on the parish in spite of their training, as more than five-sixths of the idiots do, they would be permanently engaged in some occupation, earning, under the superintendence of the authorities, as much as possible towards their own support. The deficit might be supplied by private or public charity, which in this case would really be doing a good work.

Effect of Music.—Music seems to have a most beneficial effect on, and is the greatest source of enjoyment to most idiots and imbeciles. A band plays at Earlswood on certain days in the week, and at the appointed time the boys anxiously inquire of the Teachers whether it has been ordered to play as usual. It has often been remarked that when the music commences, those who at other times are in a state of apathy, rouse up and in many eccentric ways show how much they enjoy it. These facts would seem to indicate that instruction in music should always be used as an important branch of education in such schools.

Conclusion.—The officers of the Earlswood Asylum appear to feel that at present the five years' plan with idiots is not altogether satisfactory. Permanent benefit should result from the training; for if it fail to produce this, it suffices merely to keep them happy and well during their stay at the Institution. Indeed, it may even become a source of unhappiness to them, if, on leaving Earlswood, they sink into want or the Workhouse, because they then acutely feel the loss of their accustomed

advantages. If the public were more fully convinced that, by some judicious training, the thousands of idiots which are to be found in this country could be converted into useful beings, and their labour made of a remunerative, if not of a self-supporting, character, funds would not long be wanting for enlarging Earlswood, and for erecting other establishments sufficient for training all our idiot and imbecile population.

SCHOOLS NOT AIDED

BY

PUBLIC GRANTS.

CATHEDRAL SCHOOLS.
PAROCHIAL CHARITY SCHOOLS.
WARD SCHOOLS.

ORPHAN SCHOOLS.
SCHOOLS FOR THE BLIND.
SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB.
SCHOOLS FOR CRIPPLES.

SUNDAY SCHOOLS.
FRIENDS' FIRST-DAY SCHOOLS.
RAGGED SCHOOLS.

MECHANICS' INSTITUTION SCHOOLS.
DAME SCHOOLS.
PRIVATE ADVENTURE SCHOOLS.
EVENING SCHOOLS.
BIRKBECK SCHOOLS.

37. SCHOOLS NOT AIDED BY PUBLIC GRANTS.

Until recently all Schools unaided.—The system of granting aid from the public funds towards the support of Elementary Schools, although now almost universal, has been shown in the preceding chapters to have been in operation in this country considerably less than forty years. It is true that, in one sense, all the property in the hands of the trustees of Grammar Schools, and even our Universities, may be said to belong to the community for the general good; but the resources of these Institutions have usually been supplied, in the first instance, by private benevolence, and their action has, in most cases, been more or less limited to the education of the upper classes.

Still an Important Branch.—Previous to the year 1834, the whole work of educating the children of the poor, as far as it was performed at all, was undertaken by individual benevolence; and, with the exception of the assistance received from the pence paid by the children, funds were supplied entirely from private sources, in the shape of voluntary subscriptions and donations. When the scheme for granting assistance from the public funds came into force, a large number of the schools which had been struggling with varied success, accepted the conditions on which State aid was offered. There remained, however, a considerable number which were either unwilling or unable to accede to these conditions. Many of these, as, for instance, the Congregational and some of the Parochial Schools, have since that period renounced their independent position, but a large branch still remains which is carried on independently by annual subscription and the receipts from children's pence. Although the proportion which these bear to the Inspected Schools has continually decreased, yet it is probable that the gross number has increased, and Unaided Schools for the Poor must still be considered as

forming an important section of the educational organisation of the country.

Classification of Unaided Schools.—Unaided Schools for the People may be classified as follows :—

1st. The Endowed Schools.

2nd. Those supported by charity—chiefly the benevolence of the present generation.

3rd. Those carried on for mutual improvement or for commercial profit.

1st. The Endowed Schools.

Cathedral—Charity—Ward.—In this branch are included,

a. The Cathedral Schools.

b. The Parochial Charity Schools.

c. The Ward Schools.

The Cathedral Schools are maintained for a special purpose, namely, that of educating the boys belonging to the Cathedral choir. In several cases these have become more or less identical with ordinary Grammar Schools. The Parochial Schools are gradually losing their distinctive features. A large number of them have already been united to the National Schools inspected by the State, and under the Education Department. Those which remain independent for the most part have an income sufficient to defray expenses without annual subscriptions, and consequently are ineligible for Government aid. The number in the two categories *b* and *c* is yearly decreasing.

2nd. Those conducted by Charity or Philanthropy, and chiefly by the Benevolence of the present Generation.

Schools for Afflicted Persons.—This branch is important, and embraces many schools in a very flourishing condition. It includes a large number specially provided for children afflicted in various ways, as, for instance, those deprived of sight, hearing, speech, &c., as well as for orphans. The reason why these are not under the Education Department is, that in most cases the pupils are boarded, as well as educated ; and no provision is made by that Department for giving assistance to schools under those circumstances. Public grants to Boarding

Schools are confined to those which receive criminals, or vagrants, and which fall under the Home Office regulations for Reformatory and Industrial Schools. In not a few instances, however, these Schools receive the benefit of an annual inspection by an officer from the Education Department, who undertakes the duty as a private matter, and not in his official capacity.

Sunday Schools—Ragged Schools.—Sunday Schools for all denominations may also be classed under this heading, as well as Ragged Schools. These last can receive public assistance if they think proper to teach some industrial occupation and become certified under the Industrial Schools Act. In this case they usually give up the name of Ragged and are styled Certified Industrial Schools.

3rd. Those Carried on for Mutual Improvement or for Commercial Profit.

Dame and Private Schools—Secular Schools.—The third branch, or that which comprises Schools carried on for mutual improvement or for private profit, embraces Mechanics' Institutions as well as Dame, Private Adventure, and Evening Schools. Here again, schools in the last-mentioned category may receive assistance when they fulfil the conditions of the Education Department; and the number so doing is rapidly increasing. The Birkbeck Schools represent a class which is excluded from State assistance, on the ground that religious teaching does not form any part of the instruction. Public aid has hitherto, in all cases, been limited to those places where the Bible is daily taught. In 1854 a memorial was sent to the Committee of Council, praying that the Williams' Secular School in Edinburgh might be admitted to receive the public grants, although the reading of the Scriptures did not form a part of the daily routine, nor was it in connection with any religious body. Mr. Morell, Her Majesty's Inspector, had previously, in his report for 1851, urged the expediency of extending grants to those schools in which only secular instruction was communicated by the Teacher. The decision of the Committee of Council, however, as sanctioned from time to time by Parliament, was against grants to such Institutions, and up to the present moment no schools have been admitted to the benefit of the public aid unless religion has been included in the daily course of study.

Evening Schools.—Evening Schools in large numbers are carried on independently as private speculations, though there are a great many subject to the special regulations framed for Evening Classes by the Committee of Council. The recent changes in these rules have materially encouraged the placing of such classes under that Department, and facilitated their obtaining public assistance. It seems probable that before long nearly all will at least accept the benefit of an independent examination, even if they do not avail themselves of the pecuniary assistance offered by the State.

Opposition of Dames—who are well Supported.—From what has been already remarked, it will be seen how difficult it is to draw any clear and definite line between the different classes of schools which do and which do not receive State aid, as individual cases in almost every category fulfil the necessary conditions and so benefit by the grants. This difference is becoming yearly less and less, as one after another either is inspected by Government, or else accepts the public grant. In the lower class of schools a determined stand has always been made against what is termed interference. The Dame and the Private Schools correspond to the Infant and the Day Schools under the Committee of Council; and in nearly all parishes these opposition establishments will be found carrying on their work side by side. Were the Teachers in both equally efficient, this would be a cogent argument against the necessity of State aid; but, as a rule, the qualifications of the Instructors of Uninspected Schools are deplorably deficient.

Independent Inspection.—The opinion of competent judges on the subject is almost unanimous that Private Schools are inferior to those in receipt of State aid. This is to be attributed to the regular and systematic inspection of the latter, and to the fact, that no public grants are made except to those schools taught by trained Teachers. The periodical visit of the Inspector acts as an incentive to exertion on the part of the Teacher to secure that the pupils under his care may acquit themselves creditably. The comparative failure of the Parochial Schools, after they had been in operation some years, seems due to the fact of their lacking proper authoritative supervision. So long as Independent Schools are superintended by their original founders, who necessarily feel a deep interest in their welfare, all may go on well; but when these die off, or remove

to other parts, nine out of ten of such Schools either become extinct, or, if endowed, languish in a semi-dormant condition. The only method of inspiring them with fresh life and accommodating them to the changing circumstances and conditions of society, seems to be that afforded by a public examination, conducted by the authority of the State.

Necessity of Qualification for all Teachers.—The Dame and Private Schools will remain as numerous as they now are so long as any person, however unqualified, is permitted to teach. These Teachers, if they can be called such, have a great hold on the sympathies of parents. They are often in want, and can get their living in no other way than by school-keeping; so that the poor, who are very charitable to one another, would usually prefer to pay them rather than the *Government Teacher*. Although the subject of interference is somewhat difficult in this very free country, yet, sooner or later, these Schools must be abolished, to be superseded by those under trained and properly qualified Teachers. The beneficent effect of such a reform may be readily estimated from a perusal of the chapter on Infant Schools, in which an attempt is made to show what important results may be obtained by a judicious training during the years which are now so often wasted in the Dame's Kitchen, or the so-called 'Private Establishment.'

38. CATHEDRAL SCHOOLS.

Original Constitution—Early History.—The Seminaries attached to Cathedrals appear to be almost the oldest form of English School, though their character and mode of operation have completely changed since they were originally founded. According to Nicholas Carlisle, in the darkest days of the Middle Ages, the houses of the Bishops were the chief seminaries of learning, where young persons were educated for the service of the Church. In the earliest times the Bishop was usually the chief, and not unfrequently the only Teacher in his Cathedral School. As, however, the duties of Bishops increased, it was found impossible for them to discharge this laborious occupation; and about the twelfth century men of learning were specially appointed to the office. They were called 'The Scholastics of the Diocese,' and all young persons who intended to enter the Church were entitled to the benefit of their instructions. The revenues of certain estates were set apart for their support, and their whole time was devoted to the work of teaching. The eighteenth canon of the third general Council of Lateran in 1179 decreed, 'That such Scholastics should be settled in all Cathedrals, with sufficient revenues for their support, and that they should have authority to superintend all the Schoolmasters of the Diocese, and grant them licences, without which none should presume to teach.' The chief subjects taught in these Cathedral Schools were Grammar, Rhetoric, Logic, Theology, and Church Music.

Learning at the Religious Houses.—As the Religious Houses increased in number, and the Schools, which appear nearly always to have been attached to them, rose in importance, Cathedral Schools gradually lost their distinctive character. The proficiency in learning of the Monks, particularly in Latin

and Church Music, was very great: those admitted to various official positions in the chief Abbeys were required to pass a severe examination in these subjects. The famous Nicholas Breakspear, afterwards Pope Adrian IV., the only Englishman who has ever been raised to the Papal Throne, was rejected by Richard, Abbot of St. Albans, in consequence of his not possessing a requisite amount of learning.

Decay of Schools.—The gradual decline in learning which followed this period, up to the time of the Reformation, had its effect on the Cathedral Schools, which appear at the time of Henry VIII. to have sunk into absolute decay. Henry established a new scheme for the endowment of existing bishoprics, and for the creation of a certain number of new ones. This occasioned a thorough reform in the administration of Cathedral revenues.

Henry VIII.'s Scheme.—One of the main purposes of the Cathedral establishments, from the earliest days, was evidently, therefore, to promote Religious Education, Music being considered an important branch, as it was made to enter so largely into the services of the Church. This was carried out under Henry VIII., and the means adopted under his scheme, whereby 'youth might be liberally trained,' were as follows:—

1. By the formation of a School for Choristers, who were to be instructed by the Magister Choristarum in Church Music, and in the rudiments of a liberal education; and who, if they made good progress in their studies, were to be transplanted into

2. The Grammar Schools. In these it was provided that usually about twenty-four pupils (at Canterbury fifty) were to be boarded, and educated in the 'ancient languages of Latin and Greek;' the cost being defrayed out of the Cathedral funds. In some cases Hebrew was also added to the course of instruction. The old Cathedrals had not always a Grammar School attached to them, distinct from the Choristers' School. Provision was made at some Cathedrals for the establishment of Exhibitions to the Universities. The Schools were placed under the charge of the sub-Dean, or one of the Canons, the boys being required to attend Divine worship in the Cathedral.

Character of Schools.—From several of the articles concerning the reformation of the Cathedrals submitted by the Commis-

sioners to Henry VIII., the character of these Schools as originally intended, may be discerned. In the tenth article, the following passage occurs: 'That ther may be in the said Cathedral Churche a free Songe Scole, the Scolemaster to have yerly of the said Pastor and Prechars XX marks for his wages and his howss free, to teache XL children frely, to rede, to write, synge, and playe upon instruments of musicke, also to teache ther A, B, C, in greke and hebrew. And every of the said XL children to have wekely XII*d.* for ther meat and drink, and yerly VI*s.* VIII*d.* for a gowne; they to be bownd dayly to syng and rede, within the said Cathedral Church, such Divine service as it may please the Kynges Majestie to allowe: the said childre to be at comons alltogether, with three prests hereaffter to be spoke of, to see them well ordered at the meat and to reforme their manners.'

Anecdote of Educating Poor.—An interesting anecdote is given by the Rev. R. Whiston in his 'Cathedral Trusts,' showing that there was a divided opinion in those days as to the desirability of teaching the lower classes. The occurrence took place 'when the Cathedral Church of Canterbury was altered from monks to secular men of the clergy, viz., prebendaries or canons, petty canons, choristers, and scholars.' Archbishop Cranmer being present, with other Commissioners, the 'nominating and electing such convenient and fit persons as should serve for the furniture of the said Cathedral Church according to the new foundation,' was held, and 'it came to pass, that when they should elect the children of the Grammar School there were of the Commissioners more than one or two who would have none admitted but sons or younger brethren of gentlemen. As for other husbandmen's children, they were more meet, they said, for the plough, and to be artificers, than to occupy the place of the learned sort; so that they wished none else to be put to school but only gentlemen's children; whereunto the most reverend father the Archbishop, being of a contrary mind, said "that he thought it not indifferent so to order the matter, for," said he, "poor men's children are many times endued with more singular gifts of nature, which are also the gifts of God; as, with eloquence, memory, apt pronunciation, sobriety, and such like; and also commonly more apt to apply their study than in the gentleman's son delicately educated." Hereunto it was on the other part replied, "that it was meet for the ploughman's son to go to plough, and the artificer's son to apply the trade of his

parent's vocation; and the gentleman's children are meet to have the knowledge of government, and rule the commonwealth. For we have," said they, "as much need of ploughmen as any other state, and all sorts of men may not go to school." "I grant," replied the Archbishop, "much of your meaning herein, as needful in a commonwealth; but yet utterly to exclude the ploughman's son, and the poor man's son, from the benefits of learning, as though they were unworthy to have the gifts of the Holy Ghost bestowed upon them as well as upon others, is as much to say, as that Almighty God should not be at liberty to bestow His great gifts of grace upon any person. . . Wherefore if the gentleman's son be apt to learning, let him be admitted; if not apt, let the poor man's child that is apt enter his room."'

Provisions for Schools—Management.—The provision thus made for a liberal education, whether secular or religious, was evidently therefore not confined to the higher classes of the community. Besides instruction, maintenance also was provided for 212 boys, viz.: 50 at Canterbury; 40 at Westminster and Worcester; 24 at Ely; 20 at Peterborough and Rochester; and 18 at Durham. In addition to this, free instruction, without maintenance, was granted to 84 others, namely: 24 at Chester; and 20 at Bristol, Carlisle, and Gloucester. Like other Institutions, endowed and then left very much to the varying conditions of circumstances, and the caprice of individuals responsible to little or no authority, the Schools at the different Cathedrals to a great extent reflected the interest taken in them by their Dean and Chapter. In one respect, however, they seem all to have been treated much in the same manner, and that was, that the amount of money devoted to them did not grow in the same proportion to that expended in other ways, as the estates and revenues of the Cathedral increased.

Instruction Limited to Music.—The Choristers' Schools appear very soon to have almost entirely limited the amount of instruction afforded to the children to the singing required for the sacred services. In many cases the duties of the boys were complete when the Cathedral service and their daily practice in singing was over. The maintenance originally allowed for was in most instances commuted to an annual payment, which varied from 3*l.* to 10*l.* per annum; and sometimes on leaving, when their voices broke, a sum was given to them by way of apprenticeship fee. The education of the choristers in Music

was no doubt one of the special duties of the Cathedral Schools; although it was always intended that the children's general education should be at the same time carefully attended to. The efficiency of the Choirs varied at different periods, yet they have as a whole maintained their excellence, and many celebrated musical professors have been indebted to these foundations for their early training.

Cathedral Grammar Schools—Decay.—The Cathedral Grammar Schools appear to have lapsed into almost a worse condition than the Choristers' Schools. The work effected by them partook of the apathy and deadness which characterised the later days of most of the other Grammar Schools throughout the country. Some, as Canterbury and Westminster, rose to great importance, but became more or less disconnected with the Cathedral Churches to which they were attached, and were almost entirely confined to giving instruction to the upper classes.

Statistics of Schools in 1824.—The condition of the education of the Choristers in 1824 may be judged of from the following account taken from a pamphlet published in that year. The figures in the first column are the statutable number of Choristers, those in the second the actual number appointed at that time.

Oxford :			
St. Mary Mag. .	16	16	Classical education in the Grammar School belonging to the Foundation.
New College .	16	16	Classical education by a Master appointed and paid by the College.
Christ Church .	8	8	Classical education, with addition of Writing and Arithmetic.
Lincoln . . .	15	10	Classical education in the Free School, Writing, and Accounts, at the expense of the Dean and Chapter.
Bangor . . .	14	14	Educated at Dr. Glynn's Grammar School.
Exeter . . .	14	10	Classical education, with Writing and Arithmetic.
Lichfield . .	14	8	A Master appointed and paid by the Dean and Chapter to teach Writing and Arithmetic.
Salisbury . .	14	8	Latin and Greek in the College School, with Writing and Arithmetic.
Canterbury . .	10	10	Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic.
Durham . . .	10	10	Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic.
Worcester . .	10	10	Classical education in the King's School, with Writing and Arithmetic.
London : St. Paul's	10	8	Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic.
York . . .	8	8	Classical education, with Writing and Arithmetic.
Bristol . . .	8	8	Educated in the King's Grammar School.
Chester . . .	8	8	Classical education in the King's School, with Writing and Arithmetic.

Ely	8	8	Royal Grammar School dissolved. Choristers attend the National or other Charity School.
Gloucester	8	8	Educated in the College School.
Norwich	8	8	
Rochester	8	8	Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic.
Westminster	8	8	
Hereford	7	8	Classical education in the Cathedral School, a small charge for Writing and Arithmetic.
Winchester	6	8	Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic.
Carlisle	6	6	
Chichester	6	6	No school maintained by the Dean and Chapter.
St. David's	6	6	Classical education in the Cathedral Grammar School.
Peterborough	6	6	Classical education in the King's Grammar School.
Wells	6	6	Taught Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic at an ancient Foundation School.
Ripon	6	6	Attend the Grammar or National School.
St. Asaph	4	4	None.
Llandaff	4	0	The revenues of the choir sequestrated for the repairs of the fabric.
Manchester	4	4	

Value of the Instruction.—In judging of the value of the Classical education of many of the above, it is necessary to remember the condition and discipline of most Grammar Schools at the time the pamphlet appeared. This would probably render the 'Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic' of Canterbury and Durham superior in many respects to the more highly sounding descriptions above given.

Discussion of 1850.—About the year 1850 a good deal of discussion took place in reference to Cathedral Schools, owing chiefly to the writings of the Rev. Robert Whiston, the Head Master of the Rochester Cathedral Grammar School. This gentleman showed clearly, by reference to the original Charters, and by a comparison between that portion of the cathedral income devoted to education and that expended for other purposes, that the trusts had not been carried out according to the *spirit*, even if the *letter* of the law had been complied with.

Royal Commission, 1852—Reasons of Decay of Schools.—In 1852 a Royal Commission was appointed to inquire into the state and condition of the Cathedral Churches. This body sat for several years, and issued three Reports, giving copious information as to the condition of the Schools. In its final Report it stated that, although in some instances laudable efforts had been made to

reinvigorate the Schools in recent years, yet for the most part they were not in a flourishing state, nor did they occupy the position which their founders had intended for them. The reasons the Commission assigned for this were :—

1. The fact that the amounts paid for the Masters and scholars had been more or less fixed at a certain sum in the original foundation; and though it had often been afterwards raised from time to time, yet this increase was not in proportion to the altered value of money, or the improved condition of the cathedral property.

2. The sum originally provided for the maintenance of boarders was not sufficient for that purpose, and had been commuted for a money payment to the choristers at a very early period.

Proposed Improvements.—The Commissioners, looking at all these circumstances, considered that, if competent Masters were appointed, they would be compelled to take day boys and boarders, in order to make up for their insufficient stipends. In this way the foundation boys were frequently looked upon with disfavour as compared with those who were admitted to the schools by payment. To obviate this state of things, the Commissioners recommended that in all Cathedrals where a Grammar School was part of the original foundation, and sufficient funds could be obtained, a Head Master and an Assistant Master should be appointed. The salary of the former was to be 150*l.* per annum, and of the latter 100*l.*, in addition to which each was to be provided with a house, rent free, for the reception of boarders. They also suggested that the foundation boys should be entitled to a liberal education free of expense, and that, if possible, Exhibitions should be founded in connection with the Universities. In addition, the Commissioners proposed that a Choristers' School should be attached to each Cathedral. At this, a liberal and sound religious education was to be provided, and proper attention given to musical training. The chorister boys were to be selected according to their musical ability, preference being given to those who seemed likely afterwards to pursue their studies at the Grammar School, which they were to enter, if duly qualified, as foundation boys. Those who did not thus pursue their studies were, on leaving the choir, to receive the necessary premium to apprentice them to some trade.

Management.—It was proposed that both the Grammar and Choristers' Schools should be under the Dean and Chapter, and that one of the canons residentiary should examine the boys at least once every six months. This was the general scheme, as proposed by the Royal Commission, subject to modification according to the varying circumstances of different Cathedrals, each of which would require to be considered in detail.

Present Condition.—The recommendations of this Commission, although from various causes they have not been carried out in their entirety, have had a salutary influence on the working of Cathedral Schools. In all cases, the choristers are now required to attend school regularly, and at several of the Cathedrals the instruction provided is of a high standard. At Salisbury they are maintained, and receive a good Classical education; also at Lincoln, and at St. Mary Magdalene's, Oxford. A larger number of the Cathedrals, however, do not board the pupils, but allow them a certain sum annually, varying from 10*l.* to 36*l.* per annum, in addition to free instruction. At other places, as for instance at Exeter and Winchester, they are required to pay a fee for their education, though it is usually about half that charged to the other boys who attend the School.

Choristers are Town Boys.—Owing to the Church services usually requiring the attendance of the boys almost every day in the year, it is necessary that the choristers should reside in the immediate vicinity of the Cathedral. It therefore rarely happens that any but town boys are appointed as choristers.

Care in selecting Choristers.—In the selection of chorister boys, much greater care is now usually taken than formerly, when the quality of the voice was the sole consideration. Private character is strictly inquired into, in addition to the vocal powers being carefully tested. In Exeter Cathedral, the appointment of chorister is one much sought after, although a payment of 10*l.* 10*s.* per annum is required. It often happens here, that boys are sent to the Cathedral School with a hope that they may be appointed choristers on a vacancy occurring.

Musical Teaching—Efficiency of some Schools.—The great obstacle to the efficient education of boys in Cathedral Schools is the short attendance they can give at school. Their duties at the daily services, and their practice in singing under the Choirmaster, occupy so much of their time that but little can be

devoted to improvement in general knowledge. This is urged as a reason why, as a rule, their progress is anything but satisfactory. As an exception, it may be mentioned that a large proportion of the chorister boys at Exeter have successfully passed the Oxford and Cambridge Middle-Class Examination. This would suggest the idea that deficient teaching has more to do with this matter than the system of the schools itself.

Mode of overcoming Difficulties.—The great difficulty with Cathedral Schools, which merely educate the boys who sing in the daily service, arises from the small number under instruction. It is impossible to have a regular school with ten or twelve pupils; and except at some of the Cathedral Schools, as for instance at Salisbury and Exeter, it does not seem that the progress of the choristers is altogether satisfactory. As has been already stated, there is no reason why a fair amount of general knowledge may not be attained in spite of the time devoted to music. The experience of Exeter would seem to prove that efficient schools might be established in all the Cathedral towns, where the parents of boys with good voices would be willing to allow their children to act as choristers without receiving any remuneration, if they enjoyed merely a slightly relaxed scale of school fee in consideration of their services in the Cathedral. If any difficulty were still felt, owing to the great time devoted to music and attendance at church, it would perhaps be met by establishing two sets of boys to take duty in the Cathedral on alternate days.

39. PAROCHIAL CHARITY SCHOOLS.

The Reformation.—The Reformation in England, and the consequent suppression of the Monasteries and Religious Houses, reduced the scanty means which then existed for the education of the children of the poorer classes. It cannot, however, be said that the Reformers were altogether forgetful of the importance of a proper training of the young, nor did they probably desire that the funds placed at their disposal should be diverted from the educational purposes for which they had been originally intended.

First Provision—Public Bibles.—In the preamble of a Bill dated 1539, the following passage occurs:—'That the religious houses would be converted to a better use, that God's word might be set forth, and *children brought up in learning*.' This result, however, was never realised, and although the great advantages secured by the Reformation of having Bibles in the 'Vulgar Tongue' fixed to the reading-desks in all churches, and the consequent free opportunity afforded of using them in every parish, tended indirectly to improve the secular instruction of the people, yet for a century and a half after the Reformation was complete, with the exception of Grammar Schools, whose effects, however, were but slight, schools specially adapted for the lower classes to obtain instruction in Reading and Writing, can hardly be said to have been organised.

Early Attempts.—Efforts in this direction by far-seeing persons had indeed been made, as, for instance, in 1663, by a Mr. Nedham. He proposed that some allowance should be made to parish clerks for instructing the children of the poor, and even suggested that it should be an integral part of their duties, and that they should only be appointed to the post of Clerk if they

had sufficient ability to perform this duty under the superintendence of the Minister.

Condition of People then much as now.—It is not a little remarkable how circumstances recorded at this period (nearly two hundred years ago) have their counterpart at the present day. A writer, in advocating the adoption of some plan of improvement, says, 'Take notice only of the rabble we meet in the streets; it must needs pity any Christian heart to see the little dirty infantry which swarms up and down the alleys and lanes with curses and ribaldry in their mouths and other rude behaviour, as if they intended to put off their humanity and degenerate into brutes. . . . The public have their part in this guilt and neglect—little has been done, and that little, too, has been so little looked after and observed.'

Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge.—The Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge was formed in 1698, and almost its first effort was the 'good design of erecting Catechetical Schools in each parish in and about London.' At the first meeting of the Society, a resolution to carry out this work was adopted, and efforts were at once made to collect subscriptions for the purpose. The course of instruction proposed to be given at schools started by the Society included Reading, Writing, and a thorough knowledge of the Catechism. The qualification for admission appears to have been simply the poverty of the parents. This is expressed in their early records, which state that the schools were 'for poor children, whose parents or friends were not able to give them learning.'

First School — Rapid Extension.—The first English Charity Schools were established at St. Botolph, Aldgate, Norton Folgate, and Westminster in 1698. The rapid growth of the schools under the Society may be judged of from the following table, giving the number in London in three different years. :—

Year	Number of Schools	Number of Boys	Number of Girls	Total	Number of Boys Apprenticed	Number of Girls Apprenticed
1704	54	1,386	745	2,131	306	75
1709	88	2,181	1,221	3,402	963	405
1714	117	3,077	1,741	4,818	1,650	824

In 1714 the total number of such schools in England and Ireland was 1,073, with 19,453 scholars.

Cost of Schools—Clothes for Children.—This success, it must be remembered, was produced without recourse to Government aid; indeed, such assistance as is now received as a right, at that period does not seem even to have been suggested. To support schools which, in addition to the education given to the children, frequently lodged, and boarded, and always clothed them, was a very heavy tax on the resources at the command of the clergy. A school of fifty boys, including the Master's salary, room, firing, books, clothing, and all expenses, required an annual sum of 75*l.*, and one with the same number of girls 60*l.* Although this, in our day, appears but little, yet if all the children whose education is now assisted by the Education Department could be trained at this low cost, and if the whole expense had to be paid for by private contributions, as it then had, the subscription lists to schools in the country would have to be trebled.

Mode of raising Funds.—The zeal of the clergy was largely exercised in supplying the necessary funds. Sermons were preached, lectures delivered, and charity boxes were placed in the churches, persons were appointed Clerks on condition that they would open cheap schools, and subscriptions were raised in every possible manner. An annual gathering of the children took place in London, at which a sermon was preached in aid of the funds. The first of these gatherings was held in 1704 at St. Andrew's, Holborn, when 2,000 children were present. They have been continued to the present day, and have been held annually since 1782 at St. Paul's Cathedral.

Other Sources of Income.—Other and more dubious modes of raising funds appear also to have been adopted in the zeal for the good cause. Some of the trustees of the schools belonging to St. Katherine by the Tower (the site now occupied by the London and St. Katherine Docks) were made collectors of the land-tax, on condition that their poundage was given to the schools; the other trustees agreeing to take their turns in the arduous task of collecting, in order to secure the whole profits for their support. The public lamps were farmed at St. Paul's, Shadwell, for the same end. In one parish, the clergyman 'hath provided two palls, the one of which is let out for 2*s.* 6*d.*, and the other for 1*s.* a time, for the more decent funerals of the dead, and the money so arising bears a good part of the charge of teaching the poor children there.'

Periodical Examinations.—Means were taken throughout the

country, as early as 1710, to secure that the education provided in these Charity Schools, which were rapidly increasing in number, should be sound, and also that it should not degenerate. For this end, weekly, monthly, or quarterly examinations of scholars were held in the country towns by the clergy. These examinations not only proved a source of income to the Schools, by bringing them before the public, but also served to enhance the value set on the instruction by all classes of persons.

Teachers—Scarcity—Their Qualifications.—The difficulty of finding suitable teachers, which up to the present day is so serious a hindrance to the spread of education, was equally felt in those days, and in order to meet it as far as possible, teachers were sent from London to the newly established Provincial Schools. The qualifications required from Teachers were somewhat exacting. All had to be members of the Church of England, and to be over twenty-three years of age; to be able to pass an examination in the principles of the Christian Religion, 'to be of meek tempers, and humble behaviour; to have a good government of themselves and their passions; and to keep good orders.' They were also to have a peculiar aptitude for teaching; to write a good hand, and to understand Arithmetic. It is remarkable that the early instructions require the same qualifications for Schoolmistresses, *except* 'that part which relates to the Writing a good hand, and understanding Arithmetic.'

Training School—Culminating Grammar School.—The idea of establishing a sort of Training School was proposed by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, but owing to the want of funds, it was never carried out systematically. A second scheme for starting a Grammar School, to serve as a culminating school for clever boys who should be transferred from the local Charity Schools, was also contemplated, but failed to be carried out. Had the scheme succeeded, it was hoped that it would serve as a Training School for Masters and Mistresses.

First Inspector in 1700.—In 1700, the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge 'appointed the Rev. Mr. Coghan, Inspector of all the Charity Schools in and about London and Westminster.' This was probably the first instance of a systematic educational inspection being made, and to this is no doubt largely due the early efficient state of these Charity Schools. This inspection appears to have been very searching, not only from an

educational point of view, but also as bearing on the habits and conduct of the Teacher and children.

Disposal of Children when educated.—How best to give employment to the children when they were ready to leave the School was felt at first to be a serious question ; and persons occasionally were led to doubt the expediency of educating them at all, as by so doing they considered themselves to a certain extent responsible for starting them in life. A large number were apprenticed to various trades, and in many instances persons left money for this purpose, apart from bequests to the Schools themselves. The Navy afforded a means whereby many of the children were provided with useful and profitable employment, and it does great credit to the foresight of the managers of some of these Schools, in that Navigation was taught at St. Dunstan's-in-the-West, Brighton, Southampton, and Exeter, and that, at the last-mentioned place, instruction was also given in Mathematics.

Half-time System in 1712.—The greater number of the children, however, necessarily became labourers, or engaged in ordinary agricultural and other pursuits. Bearing this in mind, a circular was sent by the Society, in 1712, to all the Charity Schools, urging the adoption of what might be called a half-time system of education. They proposed that instruction should be given in Spinning, Sewing, Knitting, Gardening, Ploughing, Harrowing, and other labour on alternate days with ordinary School-work. This it was considered would better fit the children for their duties, and train them in habits of labour and industry.

Evening Classes for Adults.—The advisability of forming Adult Evening Classes, in connection with these Charity Schools, was considered as far back as 1711, when the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge issued another circular, recommending Masters and Mistresses to appoint 'some hours in the evening on certain days of the week, to teach such grown persons to read as have been neglected in their youth.'

Children required to be baptized, &c.—As a matter of course in the early days of these Schools, all the children were required to be christened according to the ritual of the Church of England, and also to attend the service of the Church on Sundays. This rule is even now observed in several places.

Efficiency of System when started.—It will be seen from what has been stated that the original scheme of Charity Schools,

though at the present day it may appear somewhat narrow and exclusive, was, notwithstanding, highly efficient, and displayed remarkable foresight on the part of its founders and an intimate acquaintance with the requirements of the times. Their management, though left almost entirely to local effort and individual energy, was to a certain extent directed by the 'Society of Patrons of the Anniversary of Charity Schools,' a body which sprang out of that of the 'Trustees of the Charity Schools,' and was originally a sort of Committee of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge.

Decay—Caused partly by Increase of Funds.—The zeal and energy which were employed at the commencement of the eighteenth century in the formation of these Schools seem to have diminished throughout the reign of George I.; and although the number of schools gradually increased during the century, as the requirements for education expanded, yet their efficiency appears somewhat to have degenerated. This may, to a considerable extent, be accounted for by the wealth which they in time accumulated, and which led to a large number of them being provided for by endowment. The local interest consequent on the necessary efforts to keep up the funds, died out, and the Teacher's remuneration in no way depended on his energy, but remained the same, whatever might be the success of the School.

Merging into National Schools.—For more than a century these Schools remained the only ones at which the poorer classes could be educated. In spite of their deficiencies, however, the important work which they effected in preparing the way for the improvements of the National Society must not be forgotten. This Society, formed under the auspices of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, in 1811, was the next event in the history of Charity Schools; though it tended to remove from them their distinctive character, inasmuch as a great number merged into National Schools. This change has continued even to a greater degree since the formation of the Education Department, and now nearly all, except those which are so richly endowed as to be disqualified from receiving Government grants, have been placed as National Schools under the management of that Department.

Conclusion—Necessity of Inspection, &c.—Although these Pa-

rochial Charity Schools mark an important epoch in the history of English Education, and have done an excellent work in leading up to the present system, yet it may be said that, as originally started, they have had their day. The main causes of their becoming obsolete are certainly traceable to their wealth and the absence of external and impartial inspection. The former has made the Teacher's remuneration independent of his energy and success ; and the latter has prevented the instruction from ever getting out of the old groove, which though good a hundred and fifty years ago, required to be occasionally modified according to the experiences of modern times. It would, therefore, seem desirable at the present day, to concentrate all these smaller endowments, and to require that in all cases provision should be made for regular inspection of the Schools by the Education Department ; and also that the Teacher's salary should bear some proportion to the amount of instruction afforded, as shown by the results obtained.

40. WARD SCHOOLS.

Origin of Schools.—This class of school is very closely allied to the Parochial or Charity School. It may be said to stand in the same relative position to a Ward of the City of London as the Charity School does to one of the larger parishes. Even in the days when persons resided at their places of business together with their servants and dependents, the City parishes were usually too small to furnish a sufficient number of children for the maintenance of a separate school for each. It was in consequence of this that the Ward Schools were established; whereby the education of the poor residing in several parishes included in one Ward, was carried on in one common place of instruction.

Existing Schools.—Nearly all the Ward Schools were commenced about the beginning of the last century, at the period when Charity Schools first became numerous. Several of them have, since that, been combined, owing to the decrease of the resident population. At the present time they exist in the following places, namely:—

Aldersgate.
Aldgate.
Billingsgate.
Broad Street.
Castle Baynard.
Cornhill and Lime Street.
Cripplegate Within.
Cripplegate Without.
Farringdon.
Langbourn.
St. Ethelberga Society and Bishopsgate Within.
Tower.
Vintry and Queenhithe.

Changes in Mode of Teaching—No State Aid.—For many years they continued in operation on the old-fashioned system of the last century, and were exclusively devoted to the education of boys, who were clothed, as well as taught, without charge. At the period when the National Society was formed, in 1811, most

of them adopted the so-called Madras system of education, as advocated by Dr. Bell and fully described at page 50. Some also became connected with the National Society, not so much with a view of obtaining pecuniary assistance, as from the circumstance that they were founded on the same religious basis, all being in connection with the Established Church. In modern times the character of the instruction has changed with the improvements gradually introduced in the mode of teaching. The Schools do not receive pecuniary assistance from the State, and only one or two of them, as the Tower Ward School, avail themselves of the benefit of public inspection by the Education Department.

Source of Income.—The income of the Ward Schools is derived from endowments and private subscriptions. Some of the Schools possess considerable funded property, but others, as for instance, that of the Vintry and Queenhithe Wards, are mainly dependent on the amounts received from annual subscriptions. The contributors are principally persons belonging to the particular Ward to which the School is attached.

Rules for Admission.—The rules for admitting children are usually much the same in all the Schools. Those who have the first claim are the children of persons residing in the Ward. These are now rarely if ever sufficiently numerous to occupy the whole of the accommodation, and the children of parents at work during the day within the same area are next admitted. If there be still room, as there usually is, outsiders are then taken. These frequently come a considerable distance, leaving perhaps good schools in their own neighbourhood, and tramping through the back lanes of London in order to go to a Free School and be eligible to obtain the suit of clothes which is granted annually to each child. In some instances preference is specially given in the rules to certain parishes or Wards from the remembrance of service conferred at some remote period. For instance, the regulations of the Vintry Ward School provide that in admitting outside children preference shall be given to residents in the Cordwainers' Ward, in consequence of the School having formerly received much pecuniary benefit from that district. The rules generally require that all children are to be sent 'well washed and combed, with their hair cut short and their clothes well mended.'

Insufficient Attendance—Combination.—Modern changes in the City of London have rendered it impossible for the poorer classes to live within its boundaries. The practice has also become universal of well-to-do persons residing with their dependents at a distance, and merely attending during the day at their place of business. The consequence of this has been that the Wards themselves cannot in all cases supply a sufficient number of children to form separate schools, even by the above liberal interpretations being put on the rules for admission. Several of the Ward Schools are accordingly not full, and others have, as before stated, combined their action, two or three being placed together as one Institution.

Subjects of Instruction—Hours—Attendance.—The instruction given is chiefly confined to that of an elementary character; although most of the schools include Grammar, Geography, and History in their course of study. The hours of attendance are generally from 9 to 12 in the morning, and from 2 to 5 in the afternoon. Few of the schools receive children under seven years of age, and according to the regulations of all Ward Schools, the pupils are bound to remain until they are fourteen. Considerable difficulty is, however, experienced in carrying out this requirement; for no sooner are the children old enough to earn something, than they are at once taken away from school. At those Institutions which have funds at their disposal for apprenticing the pupils, or for providing them with an outfit on leaving, this difficulty is not so much experienced. Parents keep their children at the schools a year or two longer, in order to obtain this advantage; for it is usually laid down as a condition, that the child must complete his time before he can be eligible to obtain the benefit of the apprentice fee or outfit. In some places special bequests have been left for this purpose.

Teaching Staff.—The staff of teachers is usually limited to the Master and his Wife, the latter acting as Mistress to the girls. In the Aldersgate, Cripplegate, and Tower Ward Schools, an Infant Mistress has also been added. None of the Schools avail themselves of the benefit of Pupil Teachers.

Religious Teaching—Strictly Sectarian.—The religious teaching is attended to with considerable care, and all the Ward Schools are in connection with the Church of England. The pupils are instructed in the Liturgy and Catechism, and are required, according to the rules, to assemble at the school-house

on Sundays, Christmas Days, and Good Fridays, at ten o'clock in the morning, half-past two o'clock in the afternon, and six o'clock in the evening; to proceed alternately to the various churches situated within the boundaries of the Ward. This regulation is not, however, usually carried out strictly, on account of many of the children coming from a considerable distance; and also as several of the churches are not opened in the afternoon. Those children who are clothed are, as a rule, obliged to attend church at least once on Sunday. If the pupils are thought to behave themselves well, and are not known to get into mischief on Sundays, attendance is only enforced at the Morning Service. It is usual to require that the pupils shall have been baptized, and in some schools this is still rigidly adhered to; but in others, the matter is not carefully investigated, any more than the question of legitimacy, which was originally always a condition of entrance.

Free Admission—Management.—As a rule, the admission to Ward Schools is free; and not only so, but clothes are gratuitously provided. In these they walk to church, some few of the girls still continuing to wear the old-fashioned cap. Outsiders, not belonging to the Ward, have to pay a fee, as at the Castle Baynard School, where it amounts to threepence a week. The management of each of these Schools is vested in a Committee, which usually consists of the Alderman and Common Council of the Ward, the Trustees of whatever funded property the Charity may possess, and a certain number of the Subscribers, who are elected annually at a General Meeting.

Conclusion.—Modern times have necessarily brought with them changes in the requirements which Ward Schools, like most of the Endowed Charity Schools, supplied during the first century of their existence. Their history is an argument in favour of an opinion which is now almost universally accepted, namely, that, to secure efficiency, all public Elementary Schools, such as those connected with the City Wards, and which depend on eleemosynary aid, should be subject to regular inspection. There seems no reason why Ward Schools should not form part of one general scheme, instead of being managed independently, and being subject only to the varying and uncertain chances of local supervision.

41. ORPHAN SCHOOLS.

Orphan Schools a fitting Work for Charity.—The taking charge of destitute and orphan children has always been regarded as one of the noblest works of philanthropy. Many excellent Institutions having this object are to be met with in all parts of the country. One of the most noted, namely, Müller's Orphanage at Ashley Down, near Bristol, is fully described in a subsequent part of this volume, on account of the remarkable nature of its origin and development, and the extent of its present operations.

Statistics only of London known.—Owing to the absence of any system which provides for the registration of Charities, it is impossible to ascertain, with any degree of accuracy, how many of the orphan children of the country are being educated in schools specially provided for them by public or private benevolence. From Mr. Fry's interesting list of the London Charities, it appears that in and about the Metropolis there are no fewer than forty Institutions exclusively for the education of orphans. Some of these are on a very large scale, as, for instance, the Infant Orphan Asylum at Wanstead, having an income of 16,400*l.*, and providing for 560 children; and the London Orphan Asylum at Clapton, with an income of 12,287*l.*, and providing for 420 children. Others accommodate only twenty or thirty inmates, and might, with advantage be absorbed into larger establishments at a great saving of expense, and with a prospect of increased efficiency. No class of charity appears to be more readily capable of combination than this, which has one uniform object, namely, that of providing for orphanhood. The total number of children under instruction in thirty of these London Schools, which supply the statistics, appears to be 4,362; while the annual income of twenty-nine of them, derived almost

entirely from voluntary contributions, amounts to no less than 71,142*l.*

Mixed Charities, including Orphans.—In addition to these establishments, which provide exclusively for Orphans, a much larger number exist which combine the training of Orphan children with other works of benevolence: thus, the Benevolent Society of Blues, for the Widows and Orphans of those educated at Christ's Hospital; the Dissenting Ministers' Widows' Fund, for Widows and Orphans; the Shipwrecked Fishermen's and Mariners' Royal Benevolent Society; the Patriotic Fund; and many others. For the reasons before given, it is impossible to ascertain the exact number of such Institutions throughout the country; but for London, owing to the indefatigable exertions of Mr. Fry, in the little work above referred to, accurate information has been collected. The number in the Metropolis appears to be about forty-five, and the aggregate income of the thirty-seven which publish their accounts is no less than 150,000*l.* The number of Orphans who are provided for in London by this means cannot be separated from, but it must amount to a large proportion of, the 22,406 individuals benefited by these Charities.

Early Schools.—The period during which these Institutions have been formed extends over the last hundred and fifty years. The earliest founded were—the Royal Asylum of St. Ann's Society, commenced in 1702; the Royal Society of Musicians of Great Britain, in 1738; the Royal Naval Benevolent Society, in 1739; the Clergy Orphan School, in 1749; and the Orphan Working School, Haverstock Hill, in 1758. Their increase during the last forty or fifty years has been very rapid; and in the Metropolis alone hardly a year passes without one or more being added to the list.

Subjects of Instruction.—The course of study pursued is similar to, though more extensive than, that adopted at other Elementary places of instruction. In most of the Institutions the number of years during which the children are retained renders it easy to secure for them an extended course of education. At the Infant Orphan Asylum at Wanstead, in the Senior School, where the ages of the boys vary from seven to fifteen years, and those of the girls from eight to fifteen, the subjects taught are as follows:—

Scripture Instruction.	History.
Mathematics.	French.
Reading.	Vocal Music.
Writing.	Needlework.
Grammar.	Mensuration.
Dictation.	Mental Arithmetic.
Composition.	Drill.
Geography.	

Some of the senior girls also receive instruction in Instrumental Music and Drawing. The educational advantages enjoyed by Orphans when admitted to these Institutions are considerable. They are exempt from any interference in their studies; they are not liable to be removed from one school to another; their daily attendance is very regular, owing to their residing on the school premises; and their guardians or friends are not allowed any voice in the selection of the subjects of instruction, such matters being entirely under the control of the Committee of the Institution.

Not aided by Government—Inspection.—As a rule, Orphan Schools are not qualified to receive Government grants, as they not only educate, but also board and lodge the children. Several, however, are inspected by the officers of the Committee of Council, who report annually on their progress and efficiency. These inspections are not official, but are undertaken as private matters by the Inspector.

Mode of Admission.—The rules for admission into Orphan Schools necessarily vary. Some schools are limited to the orphans of persons who have been engaged in particular callings or professions, as, for instance, those of the clergy, of sailors, of commercial travellers, &c. Other schools confine their attention to infants and those within certain ages. Few Institutions admit children who have been the recipients of parish relief, as it is considered that the Workhouse School should be available for such. In nearly all cases admission is obtained by the votes of the subscribers to the charity at a half-yearly election. The payment of a certain sum, generally 10*s.* 6*d.* a year, entitles the subscriber to one vote. This vote he is at liberty to give to any child who is eligible. However many objections this plan may have, it is certainly popular with managers. This is no doubt the case from the inducement which it holds out to persons to subscribe to the funds of the charity. The periodical election

brings the claims of the Institution more immediately before the subscriber, whose privilege of voting is given as a sort of return for his donation.

Parentage of Children.—Some interesting facts are published in the Report for 1866–7 of the Infant Orphan Asylum at Wanstead, giving the parentage of the pupils at that time in the Institution. From this it appeared that scarcely any profession or respectable calling was unrepresented.

There were :—

15	children whose fathers had been		Clergymen.
30	,,	,,	Medical Practitioners.
20	,,	,,	Barristers and Solicitors.
14	,,	,,	Architects and Surveyors.
22	,,	,,	Farmers.
7	,,	,,	Artists.
22	,,	,,	Merchants.
8	,,	,,	Officers in the Army and Navy.
26	,,	,,	Captains of Vessels.
11	,,	,,	Persons holding Government appointments.
21	,,	,,	Schoolmasters.
92	,,	,,	Clerks.
10	,,	,,	Warehousemen.
5	,,	,,	Independent Gentlemen.
9	,,	,,	Hotel Keepers.
160	,,	,,	Tradesmen.
6	,,	,,	Railway Officials.
9	,,	,,	Civil Engineers, &c.

Religious Teaching.—The religious teaching in many Orphan Schools, particularly in the smaller Institutions, is sectarian, and depends upon the particular denomination to which the School belongs. In the majority, however, and almost invariably in the large Schools, it is conducted in a liberal spirit, and is based somewhat on the original British System. In one or two Institutions, for instance at the Commercial Travellers' Schools, a plan somewhat like the following is adopted. All are required to attend the public worship of the Church of England; but before any child is admitted, its parent or guardian is required to answer this question, 'Which of the two following catechisms do you wish your child to be taught, viz., the Catechism of the Church of England, or that of the Assembly of Divines at Westminster?" At the Haverstock Hill School, the Sunday services are taken by ministers of almost all denominations in rotation. Thus on one Sunday, the Committee arrange for a Church of England clergyman to attend; the next for a

Wesleyan; the next for an Independent, and so on. No difficulty is ever experienced in consequence of the adoption of this plan, forcibly showing how the so-called 'religious difficulty' would vanish, if only met in a really Christian spirit.

Management.—The management of these Charities is usually left in the hands of a Committee, elected annually by the subscribers. By this system, fresh blood is being continually infused into the management; and thus the life of the Institution is kept vigorous. At the same time new and improved systems of teaching are introduced, and the arrangements of the School adapted to the varying requirements of the age.

Cost—Variations.—The annual cost of Orphan Schools does not always bear a proportion to the number educated, but varies considerably. Thus at the

	Income	No. of Children Accommodated	Cost per Head
	£ s. d.		£ s. d.
Infant Orphan Asylum, Wanstead .	16,400 0 0	560	29 5 0
London Orphan Asylum, Clapton .	12,287 0 0	420	27 18 4
Orphan Working School, Haverstock Hill	8,630 0 0	353	24 10 0

In smaller Schools, the cost per head is so much greater in some than in others, that it can only be attributed to errors in management, involving an unnecessary outlay.

Advantages of Combination of Small Schools.—It certainly is not desirable to conduct Orphan Schools on the same strictly economical principles which should be adopted for those of the pauper class; but the funds of these charities are often expended, not in giving the recipients greater educational advantages, but in carrying on the school in too expensive a manner. The cause of this is usually to be found in a want of knowledge among the managers as to the best mode of organising the teaching power and the domestic staff, as well as in an absence of a rigid economy in small, and apparently unimportant, details of housekeeping. The elements of economy and success appear to be obtainable to best advantage in the larger Institutions, and even then only when they are conducted by persons practically acquainted with school organisation and general domestic arrangements.

Entirely supported by Private Benevolence.—The Institutions which exist in the Metropolis are largely supported by country subscribers; while those in the Provinces are almost wholly dependent on local eleemosynary aid from the various districts in which they are situated. The whole of this good work has been brought into action by the efforts of private benevolence; and the success with which it has been carried on, year after year, shows the widespread interest exhibited in the welfare of the orphan and destitute, and recognises their peculiar claim to the sympathising charity of those desiring their prosperity and happiness.

Suggestions for Registration and Mutual Working.—Without for a moment disparaging these efforts, it would seem highly desirable that all the Institutions should be conducted on some general and uniform principle. This would prevent new ones from being established with an entirely fresh staff, &c., except when it is evident that no existing school could accommodate the children. It would undoubtedly be desirable that all Institutions having for their object the training of the young, whether supported by public or private liberality, should be inspected annually by an officer appointed by the Committee of Council. It would also be well if some arrangement were introduced, by which all such schools were required to be registered and certified as to the number they could accommodate, &c., in a similar manner to that at present provided for Certified Industrial Schools.

42. SCHOOLS FOR THE BLIND.

Chief Institutions now in Operation.—The Education of the Blind is a subject which has for many years occupied the careful attention of many eminent philanthropists, and numerous methods have been adopted in order to facilitate the means of instruction. The success of some of these has been very great, and in consequence of the singular quickness of a large number of the Blind, remarkable results have been attained. These successes in endeavouring to relieve the monotony of the sufferers' existence have stimulated many to prosecute the work, and, as a consequence, Schools for the Blind are to be met with in various parts of the country. Amongst the chief of these may be mentioned the following:—

Schools	Boarders	Day Scholars
The Indigent School, Southwark	160	...
The Edinburgh Asylum	132	...
Portobello Catholic	100	...
Manchester	78	...
Liverpool	67	...
,, Roman Catholic	80	...
Dublin National Institution	62	22
The London Society	54	15
Brighton	60	...
Birmingham	64	...
York	70	...
Newcastle-on-Tyne	38	...
Nottingham	45	11
Edinburgh	31	4
Ulster	31	...
Bristol	26	8
Dublin, Richmond Institution	20	2
Bath School	18	1
Norwich	38	...
Exeter	50	10

First School Societies for the Blind.—The Institution at Liverpool was the first school established in the United Kingdom

which had for its object the 'instruction of the Blind in some art or trade by which they should be enabled to earn something at their own homes towards their subsistence.' In addition to these regular schools, a large number of Societies are engaged in the work of educating the Blind in various trades and other useful occupations, either at their own homes or at some central Institution.

Chief Object aimed at.—The general object of these Charities is to enable the indigent Blind, in spite of their affliction, to do something towards their own livelihood, and also to qualify them to share in such social enjoyments as Reading, Singing, Playing Instruments, &c. In not a few cases, it has been found that, when properly educated, the Blind are able entirely to support themselves by their work, after leaving the Schools or Institutions in which they have been taught.

School for the Indigent Blind, London—Origin.—The School for the Indigent Blind in St. George's Fields, Southwark, is the largest Institution of the kind in the kingdom. It is so good an example of the mode of teaching the Blind, and of the practical benefit effected by a judicious system of training, that a description of it may perhaps afford the best means of illustrating the subject. It was established on its present site as far back as 1799, and was incorporated in 1826. The building, which is excellently adapted for the purposes required, stands on several acres of land, and belongs to the Corporation, which is also possessed of a capital of about 80,000*l.*, invested in the English funds.

Conditions of Admission.—The inmates of the Asylum are elected by the votes of the subscribers to the Charity. It is a necessary condition that they shall not have a greater amount of sight than is sufficient to enable them to distinguish light from darkness; they must not be deficient in intellect or physical power; they must otherwise be in good health, unmarried, and able to wash and dress themselves without assistance. The limits of age at the time of admission are from ten to twenty, but the Committee have power to take in exceptional cases, either at nine or up to twenty-two. Persons in the receipt of parochial aid are admitted, provided such allowance is continued as a contribution towards their maintenance in the School. Last year 191*l.* 9*s.* was thus received. In all cases it is

required that a respectable householder shall engage to be responsible for the removal of the pupil when the time of instruction at the School is over, or before that period, if for any reason the Committee think it necessary to discharge him or her.

Half-time System Pursued—Instruction.—The system in the School is what may be called the half-time system; that is, the pupils are divided into two equal sections, and these sections are alternately engaged half the day in theoretical and half in industrial pursuits. The theoretical subjects taught are Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic. The Religious instruction, which all receive, is conducted by the Chaplain.

Reading.

Mode of Instruction.—In all cases, it is necessary to commence the instruction of the children by teaching them the alphabet; and inasmuch as the shape of each letter has to be learned by the sense of touch, it may readily be imagined that this process is often a tedious one. It generally takes three or four years to enable them to master one of the raised letter books with sufficient ease to be able to read aloud to their companions. The way they are taught is by requiring them to pass the tips of the fingers (principally the forefinger) over raised or embossed letters, and so, by the sense of touch, to acquire the power of reading. Women learn more readily than men, on account of the greater delicacy of their sense of touch. The men's fingers are coarse and hard, and they do not so easily acquire the *tactus eruditus*. Children, of course, are quicker than either men or women. There are several systems in use at different Institutions, some having the embossed writing in the common Roman letter, and others making it into a shorthand of signs representing words or syllables. A good deal of difference of opinion exists as to which method is the best.

Opinion of Rev. W. Taylor.—The Rev. W. Taylor, formerly Director of the Wilberforce School for the Blind at York, says, in a letter addressed to the Committee of the Bristol Asylum for the Blind, in 1847: 'It is now 27 years since I first turned my attention to the education of, and printing for, the Blind. I have visited most of the Institutions in England and on the Continent; I have tried numerous experiments with different plans, and everything tends to confirm me still more in the opinion which I

have always had, and which I have so often expressed in various ways, of the undesirableness of the stenographic character. . . . With respect to the demand for books in raised letters, I am quite sure that, if printed in the common Roman character, the various Institutions in England, America, and several other countries would readily take all that could be supplied. . . . There are *punches* now made of the English letters both "capital" and "lower case," and most of the printing and "getting up" of the books can be done by the Blind themselves. In educating the Blind, I do fervently hope that everything will be done to unite them as much as possible with their seeing brethren, and not cause them to be looked upon as a set of foreigners, unacquainted with even the shape or form of those symbols which, since the time of Güttenberg, have served to convey to us so many of our greatest advantages and amusements.' In reference to the argument that the shorthand can be read more rapidly than the words spelt at full length, Mr. Taylor says: 'If the Blind can read a book with such facility as to be interested in it, they read quickly enough. To do more than that would be no benefit to them, for their stock of books must for a long time be very limited; and as *occupation* is as valuable to them as amusement, it is desirable to make reading go as far in that way as possible.' The stenographic character necessarily requires to be taught by persons who have learned it for the express purpose of teaching the Blind, while the letter in common use can be taught by any child who can read.

Writing.

Mode of Instruction.—This subject is imparted at the same time as reading, but is always a slower process. The plan adopted at the Southwark School is by means of two alphabets of capital letters, arranged in partitions in a box, similar to a very small case of printers' type. These letters are made of a number of pins, let into a little square piece of wood, and are so formed that, when pressed into paper, they make an indentation with a burr on one side. The paper is then placed on a pad and fixed with a frame, having wooden bars across, to secure that the letters are written in the same line. The writer discovers by practice in which partition of the box each letter lies, just as a printer does, and he accordingly takes each one out as he requires it to prick the paper, taking care to leave the last letter

in the frame until he has *written* the next. He of course makes a point of 'looking to see,' as he himself calls it, whether the correct letter he wants is in its proper position in the box, before he stamps the paper with it, as they are necessarily apt to get disarranged. This he does by running his finger over the letters, which operation informs him in a moment of any mistake. When finished, the pricked burrs form a raised writing, which, with some little practice, the blind writer is able easily to read. However quick they are at this exercise, it is at best but a slow process, and is mainly employed for writing down directions of work, and such things, for reference, their epistolary correspondence being necessarily limited.

Arithmetic.

Difficult for the Blind—How Taught.— This is a subject which the blind pupils have great difficulty in acquiring. Some are said to attain considerable proficiency, and to work common rules as rapidly as most persons with sight, but these are few. In the first place, it is comparatively rare for them to know anything beyond the names of the numbers, when they enter the school. The mode adopted for their instruction is as follows. The 'Slate' consists of a piece of iron in a wooden frame, completely covered with rows of pentagonal holes at right angles to one another. Small pieces of metal, shaped as pentagons, having at one end two points, and at the other a slit cut, serve as the numbers. According to the position of the end with the slit, when the piece of iron is put into the pentagonal hole, that is, as one of its sides alternately touches each side of the pentagonal hole, so it represents 1, 3, 5, 7, and 9, and if the piece of iron be inverted, the two pointed ends which then project in similar positions represent 2, 4, 6, 8, and 0. In this way, any common arithmetical expression can be formed, and the first four rules worked out. As may be imagined, it often takes a long time to enable the pupils to understand the multiplication table, but, if this is once mastered, they usually get through the four rules pretty well.

The Industrial Work.

Articles Manufactured.—This is the most important branch in the Institution, though little success can be attained without at

least some mental training. The articles made comprise door-mats of all kinds, plain and fancy worsted rugs, rope and cocoa-nut fibre matting, basket-work of all descriptions, brushes, patent sash and clothes lines, knitting, netting, crochet, tatting, fancy hair-work, and worsted socks, &c., &c. All the articles are sold at the ordinary shop prices, either by retail or wholesale, a large part of them being made to order. The manufacture of the patent sash and clothes lines is a profitable one, and is learned without much difficulty. Two girls are able to make about three yards in an hour. It is sold for 3*d.* a yard, which leaves a good profit after paying for the material. Perhaps the making of baskets is more easily taught than any other trade, and it has the further advantage of being remunerative, inasmuch as there is always a large demand for common baskets, and visitors are not unwilling to pay a fair price for such really useful articles.

Out-Door Shop—Self-supporting.—The Adult Shop for out-door workers, chiefly those who have been brought up in the School, is a most beneficial branch of the Institution. It is entirely self-supporting, the only aid given by the Charity being the necessary accommodation for the people to work in. The men employed are paid by piece-work, at a fixed price, and their occupation entirely depends on the number of orders received. By this means they realise, on an average, as much as from 12*s.* to 20*s.* a week, and consequently earn more than sufficient to support themselves.

Musical Instruction.—The musical instruction is a special feature in most Blind Schools, and at the Southwark Institution it is pursued with great earnestness and success. Many of the Blind have excellent ears for music, and the power of playing some instrument, which they acquire with remarkable facility, is a great source of amusement to them, tending agreeably to vary the monotony of their existence, and in many cases enabling them to earn their living as organists, &c. Nearly all are taught to sing, and those who show any particular talent are allowed to learn some instrument, though it is quite optional, and treated as an amusement. A band has been formed, which numbers about thirty, and their performance shows that they have received most excellent training. The labour of teaching a blind pupil the elements of music is great. He is first taught the scales and the general theory of music; but as soon as possible he is allowed to play simple airs,

in order that he may be interested in the pursuit, and not too wearied with the elementary drudgery. When he is thus far advanced, he joins all those who are playing the same instrument as himself, and they practise together in a separate room, under the Teacher, until they know their part by heart. The different parts then practise together, and are taught to keep in time by the Conductor counting aloud, or rapping with a stick. The illustration at page 348 shows how this part of the instruction is performed. It is astonishing how soon, and with what precision, they play even difficult music, and with what accuracy they attend to the most complex passages in point of time. The concerts which they occasionally give are excellent. The organ at the chapel is played by one of the pupils, and several good organists have been sent out from this School. Every piece of music they necessarily learn by heart, but it is surprising how soon they pick up a tune, their memory in all things, and especially in music, being particularly acute. The careful instruction in music, even if somewhat expensive, should undoubtedly form a part of the work of all Schools for the Blind.

Teaching by 'Seeing' Persons.—The teaching and the superintendence at this School, and at the Schools throughout the country generally, with one or two exceptions, are carried on by 'seeing' persons, who receive salaries for their work. An unsuccessful attempt was at one time made to train some of the blind pupils to act as monitors; but it was found that advantage was taken of a monitor suffering the same infirmity, and so the attempt was abandoned.

Time at School.—The period for which each pupil is elected is six years, though in some cases a little longer stay is allowed, if thought desirable. A limited number are retained for life, as servants or assistants. These are chiefly selected from the poorest pupils, who have made themselves useful, but who are not sufficiently quick to get their own living, and who would, if sent away, undoubtedly have to enter the workhouse.

Holidays.—At Christmas and Midsummer, a week's holiday is given to those who have friends, and who like to go away. The larger number take advantage of the privilege, and the breaking-up reminds one of the scene before the vacation at a large school. On these occasions, each is allowed to make something (the materials for which do not exceed a certain value), which he

A MUSIC LESSON TO THE BLIND

(*See* page 348)

is at liberty to take away with him, and give, as a present, to his friends.*

After-history of Pupils not sufficiently known.—The future history of most of the pupils, after they leave the Southwark School, except of those few who continue in the Adult Shop as journeymen, is not known as fully as could be desired. At some places, as at Bristol, the first engagement is noted, but that appears to be all, in the majority of instances. It would be interesting to have some careful record of their career, as it is important to know the permanent effect of the training on all, for unless it enables them to keep in a better position than they otherwise would have been in, its value is very much reduced.

Profits on Trade Occupations.—The industrial occupations, though successful as a means of employment, are not always made commercially profitable. During the year 1867, the value of the goods sold at Southwark was 1,712*l.*, which sum also represented very nearly the value of the quantity manufactured. After deducting materials, wages, and provisions of teachers, &c., a loss of 162*l.* accrued to the Institution, or just 1*l.* per head for the pupils. The work of teaching a trade to those who have lost their sight is necessarily much more tedious, and consequently more expensive, than the same task in other Industrial Schools; but, in spite of this, a loss is by no means the invariable rule. At the London Society Institution for the Blind, a profit is made, as also at the Richmond Institution, Dublin, and other places.

Cost of the Southwark School.—The outlay involved in maintaining an Institution for teaching the Blind is necessarily greater than that of a District School for pauper children. The pupils, when they first enter, require much attention, and a greater amount of superintendence than that given to those blessed with all their faculties. There seems, however, no reason why the cost should be higher than that of the Earlswood Asylum for Idiots, as is the case at Southwark and some other Institutions. From the last published report, it appears that the expenditure of the former School in 1867 was 8,777*l.* 6*s.* 2*d.*, in addition to the loss on industrial work of 162*l.* 10*s.* 10*d.* Leaving out the item for costs of the two elections, and law

* At some of the schools, Bristol for example, when the pupil leaves for good he is supplied with a stock of basket-making or other tools, at the expense of the Institution.

charges on account of legacies, as also the items for wages, rations, and other expenses of the industrial training, the total cost of the Institution proper was 8,758*l.* 6*s.* This amounts to 54*l.* 14*s.* 8*d.* for each of the indigent blind students, without any allowance for rent, as the premises, with the exception of a ground rent of 16*l.* 19*s.* 3*d.*, are free.

Details of Cost.—This charge is made up as follows:—

Item	Total Cost			Cost per Head			Corresponding Cost of Boys at the Norwood District School		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Maintenance	2,545	9	11	15	18	2*	8	17	6
Clothing	799	14	5	4	19	11	1	14	5
Staff—Salaries and Wages	1,654	9	6	10	6	9	4	3	0†
House expenses, Gas, Coals, Washing, &c.	1,043	14	10	6	10	5			
Medicine	72	5	0	0	9	0	1	3	6
Music, Instruments, &c.	212	14	9	1	6	7			
Taxes	568	0	6	3	11	0			
Incidents, repairs, materials, &c.	1,508	2	1	9	8	6			
Prizes to Students	191	4	2	1	3	10			
Loss on Industrial Work	162	10	10	1	0	3		13	6
Total	8,758	6	0	54	14	5	16	11	11

* This probably includes the rations of the resident officers and teachers, which the 8*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.* does not. At the Norwood School these rations are included under 'Staff, 4*l.* 3*s.*'

† This includes the Industrial Teachers, which the corresponding sum of 10*l.* 6*s.* 9*d.* does not.

Comparison of Cost with other Places.—Although a comparison is drawn above, between the Norwood School and the Indigent Blind School, it is not to be supposed that the latter could be carried on at the same rate in every respect as the former. In maintenance, clothing, and several items, there does not seem to be sufficient reason for any great difference, except perhaps that the average ages of the Blind are a year or two higher than those of the Norwood children. This, however, must to a certain extent be balanced by the saving during the holidays given at Christmas and Midsummer to the Blind, which are not given in the District School. The staff must be more expensive at the Institution under consideration, as the pupils require greater supervision, and are incapable of attending to many matters, which have consequently to be performed for them. Even allowing for this, however, the cost of the Southwark School seems great as compared with many other establishments, as, for instance, the Earlswood Idiot Asylum, where the pupils require even a still more careful watching and a more costly staff. As before stated, the appointed time for each

pupil to remain at the School is six years, but many are kept a little longer. It follows, therefore, that the cost of educating each of these indigent blind persons, without any consideration of rent, is at least six times 54*l.* 14*s.* 5*d.*, or 328*l.*

Cost of Provincial Schools.—The Richmond Institution, in Dublin, not only makes a profit on its industrial work, but reduces the cost per head per annum to about 31*l.*, including rent. The fine asylum at Manchester, called 'Henshaw's Blind Asylum,' with 78 inmates, which is in every way a model school, costs only 27*l.* 10*s.* per head per annum, the item of 'Salaries and Wages' amounting to but 585*l.*, or 7*l.* 10*s.* per head, as compared with 10*l.* 6*s.* 9*d.* at the Southwark School. Other Institutions, as the Portobello Catholic Asylum, with 100 pupils, and the Brighton School, with 48, do the same work, though perhaps in not quite so handsome a manner, yet with good results, and at a still less cost. The excellent Institution at Edinburgh, called the School for Blind Children, takes in children aged from 6 to 15, at 12*l.* a year for Board and Education, and 2*l.* for clothing. This amount is supplemented by subscriptions, which bring the cost per head up to 17*l.* The subjects here taught are English, Writing, and Arithmetic, Grammar, Geography, History, and Music, and for the girls, in addition, Knitting and Sewing. Although the amount of instruction does not doubtless range so high as at Southwark, yet the difference can hardly be in the proportion of the annual cost of the two Institutions; that is, as 17*l.* to 54*l.* Such an enormous difference must point in some way to a want of due administration, or to the absence of that judicious management which is so essential in order to keep down the costs of public Institutions.

Comparison of Cost.—It is extremely difficult to arrive at the exact cost of Institutions, from the fact that the accounts published by each are on a different system, and are often much involved and puzzling. The balance-sheets of charities of all descriptions are often drawn out in a most complicated manner; so much so that, except to those familiar with the working of each Institution, it is at times impossible to disentangle the corresponding items in different establishments with any degree of certainty of success. The following details of some of the chief Schools have been compiled with great care, principally from Reports collected in 1867, and sent to the Paris Exhibition.

School	When Established	No. of Pupil Boarders	Expenditure on Maintenance, Staff, Clothing, &c., without regard to cost of Staff, Materials, &c., for Industrial Training		Amount per Head		Amount to be deducted for gain over Industrial Work			Amount to be added for loss on Industrial Work			Total Net Cost		
			£	s.	£	s.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d
SOUTHWARK: St. George's Fields	1799	160	8,596	0	53	14		...		1	0	0	54	14	0
BRISTOL: The Blind Asylum	1793	45	1,966	0	75	0		*			*		43	14	0
LIVERPOOL: School for the Indigent Blind	1791	67	2,829	0†	42	5	2	16	0		...		39	9	0
LONDON SOCIETY: Regent's Park	1838	54	2,084	0	38	0		...		0	12	0	38	12	0
MANCHESTER: Henshaw's Asylum	1838	78	2,146	0	27	10	0	8	0		...		27	2	0
NOTTINGHAM: Midland Institute	1843	45	1,150	0	25	12		...		0	15	0	26	7	0
DUBLIN: Molyneux Asylum	...	62	1,398	0	22	10	0	15	0		...		21	15	0
EDINBURGH: The Asylum	1793	132	3,080	0	23	6	2	17	0		...		20	9	0
DUBLIN: Richmond Institution	1810	20	634	0	31	14	11	7	0		...		20	7	0
PORTOBELLO: Catholic Asylum	1860	100	1,850	0	18	10		‡			‡		18	10	0
BRIGHTON	1842	48	865	0	18	0		*			*		18	0	0
EDINBURGH: School for Blind Children	...	31	522	0	17	0		*			*		17	0	0

* Profit and loss about equal.
† Includes the cost of Industrial Staff, which cannot be separated from the Report.
‡ No Industrial work.

All should be Educated.—In all matters of public education it may be taken as a maxim that it is more desirable to bring a large number of persons up to a certain standard sufficiently high to be of practical benefit to them, than to lavish expenditure on a comparative few, even if those few be thereby advanced somewhat higher than it would be possible to raise the general average of all. This is particularly true with regard to the indigent Blind. Their training and education, as intelligent beings, is incumbent on the community; and when it is seen that in so many cases their labour may be productive and assist materially towards their maintenance, it becomes not only a duty, but an economical advantage to the country, that all should receive proper attention.

Conclusion.—It is estimated that there are at present at least 29,248 blind persons in the United Kingdom. It is difficult to say how many of these are poor, but, doubtless, a large proportion, and certainly far more than are now being trained, or who have at any previous time received the advantage of a special

education. While the cost is so great as at Bristol and Southwark, it is to be feared that it will be a long time before all these are properly instructed ; but by increasing the number of such schools as the one at Edinburgh, and adding to it an industrial training such as that pursued at Manchester at a profit, and at Southwark at a slight loss, the task would not be very serious nor much more costly than that at present involved in maintaining the same afflicted persons in idleness.

43. SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB.

Causes of Dumbness.—Persons who are usually called 'Deaf and Dumb' are those who have been born deaf, or who have lost their hearing early in life. Dumbness is not usually a physical defect caused by the loss or imperfect development of any organ, but it is almost invariably the consequence of deafness, the child not being able to learn to imitate sounds of the existence of which he is unconscious. By repeatedly hearing and imitating sounds children gradually learn to talk; the accuracy of their articulation being developed by degrees, as they improve in their power of imitating what they hear others utter. The speech of those who lose their hearing when advanced in life usually becomes considerably changed in character; and the power of modulating their voices is always materially impaired. When children as young as six, and up to eight or ten years of age, capable of speaking fluently, lose their hearing, defective speech almost amounting to dumbness invariably follows, unless the most careful attention is given to prevent it. The trouble of instructing them, when this has been the case, according to the method which will be presently described, is almost as great as that which is involved in teaching a child who has been born deaf, and has consequently never spoken.

Instruction thought Hopeless.—Until comparatively quite a recent date the systematic teaching of the Deaf and Dumb to read and write and to develope their faculties seems to have been regarded as scarcely practicable. Persons thus afflicted were commonly looked upon as of feeble intellect; and no doubt this is one and probably the chief reason why any serious attempt at instructing them was thought to be almost hopeless. Some cases are on record of remarkable results having been obtained in very early times. As far back as the fifteenth

century St. John of Beverley is said to have taught a dumb youth to repeat letters and syllables, and even words and sentences. So much was thought of the fact that it is recorded as one of the miracles performed by that Bishop. It appeared impossible that such a result could be accomplished by human agency without the special interposition of Divine power.

Origination of System—Early History.—Jerome Cardan, an Italian, and a native of Pavia, who was born in 1501, seems to have been the first to have discovered that the Deaf and Dumb might be taught according to regular principle, and that their infirmity was not necessarily a bar to their receiving instruction. He argued that 'writing is associated with speech, and speech with thought, but written characters and ideas may be connected together *without* the intervention of sounds, and consequently that the instruction of the Deaf and Dumb is difficult, but it is *possible*.' According to the authority of Chambers, in the last edition of his Encyclopædia, Pedro Ponce, a Benedictine monk in Spain, was the first to practise in accordance with these principles. He died in 1584, and in the register of his death it is recorded that he was distinguished by his eminent virtues, and that he obtained a just celebrity throughout the world for instructing deaf mutes. Nothing more seems to have been done until 1620, when Juan Paulo Bonet, also a monk of the same order, published a book on the subject of teaching the Deaf and Dumb. In this work the one-handed alphabet was fully described and shown to be practicable and available for the purpose of intercommunication. The one at present in use on the Continent and in America is based upon it, and has departed very little from the original model as described in this volume.

First English School.—The education of the Deaf and Dumb has occupied a considerable amount of attention at various times, since the publication of Bonet's work. Several treatises have been written on the various modes proposed; and in France especially the subject has been fully ventilated. As in many other questions, England and France seem to have moved together in this matter, for the first two regular schools which were established, the one in England, the other in France, commenced their operations at about the same time, viz. the year 1760. The former was situated in Edinburgh, and was carried on under the direction of Thomas Braidwood; the latter in Paris, under the Abbé de l'Epée.

Commencement of London Asylum.—Braidwood removed his school from Edinburgh to London, and shortly afterwards, that is in 1792, the London Asylum for the indigent Deaf and Dumb was established. The two persons who are looked upon as the founders were the Rev. H. Cox Mason, Rector of Bermondsey, and the Rev. J. Townsend, a Dissenting minister in the same neighbourhood. This Institution has always remained one of the most important schools of this description in the world. The Principal who first undertook its management was Dr. Watson, a nephew of Mr. Braidwood. He was succeeded in 1820, by his son, on whose death in 1857, his grandson, the Rev. James H. Watson, who was brought up among the Deaf and Dumb, was appointed. This gentleman, whose portrait is given in the engraving at page 398, is still carrying on the work, which his family has been so largely instrumental in bringing to its present state of efficiency and success.

Statistics of Deaf and Dumb.—The number of the Deaf and Dumb in this country is ascertained with tolerable accuracy every ten years, when the census is taken. According to the census of 1861, there were 12,236 deaf and dumb persons in England and Wales, that is 6,841 males, and 5,393 females. Compared with the population, this gives 1 in 1,640. In Scotland, the proportion is higher, viz., 1 in 1,311; and in Ireland, higher still, or 1 in 1,026. On the Continent, the proportion is about the same as in England. The country in which the fewest number of deaf mutes is to be found is Holland, where only one in every 2,714 of the population is thus afflicted, whilst in Savoy the proportion is 1 in 443. Some assign as a cause the damp condition of the valleys, for whenever goître is prevalent, there the Deaf and Dumb seem to be more numerous.

Causes of the Misfortune.—Amongst the causes which tend to propagate this affliction are the consanguinity of the parents, and the transmission of the defect from one generation to another. A remarkable result attended an investigation made by Mr. Buxton, the Principal of the Liverpool Deaf and Dumb School in 1857. It appeared that, of a large number of cases which came under his notice, one out of every ten who were deaf and dumb was the offspring of the marriage of cousins. He also found that the children of 310 deaf and dumb persons, who had married those who were not deaf and dumb, gave as a result, that 1 out of every 135 of their children, suffered from

the calamity; but what was still more remarkable, that of the children of 303 deaf and dumb men who had married deaf and dumb women, one in every twenty was afflicted with the parents' misfortune. Many ailments to which children are particularly liable frequently produce deafness, and consequently lead to mutism during the early years of life; of these, scarlatina, smallpox, measles, and whooping cough, are perhaps the most serious. A large number of children also become deaf from fits when teething.

Existing Institutions.—The Institutions which are at present existing for the Deaf and Dumb in this country are located as follows:—

	Boys	Girls	Total
London, with a Branch at Margate	190	140	330
Brighton	55	55	110
Exeter	40	30	70
Bath	11	16	27
Bristol	16	10	26
Birmingham	60	60	120
Liverpool	50	40	90*
Manchester (Upper School)	50	50	100
,, (Infant School)	25	25	50
Doncaster	68	42	110
Newcastle-on-Tyne	60	50	110
Swansea	15	12	27
Total	640	530	1,170

* Together with 40 Day Scholars.

Ages of Admission.—The ages at which children are admitted to these Institutions vary from three to sixteen years, the greater number being between seven and eight years old.

Mode of Instruction.—The mode of instruction adopted is very similar in nearly all the Institutions in this country. The plan pursued at the London Asylum is as follows:—As soon as a child is received, he is taught to write the letters on a slate, and at the same time the corresponding sign which represents the letter in the two-handed alphabet. The next step, when he is pretty familiar with his letters, is to form simple words, as cat, gun, arm, bird, leg, &c.; all of which are shown to him by pictures, or in reality. The progress to this point is generally rapid, as many of the children are fairly quick of apprehension. Considerable difficulty is, however, experienced in making the pupils thoroughly understand abstract ideas.

Uses of Signs.—During the instruction, the use of signs is most

valuable. These signs, as used at each Institution, form a language, having one common basis, but differing with each Instructor, and indeed with almost every pupil. They have been classified by the Teachers, the greater number being based on the modes of expression used naturally by the deaf persons themselves. Verbs have even been conjugated by means of signs. In describing a thin man or a fat man, a tall boy or a short boy, for example, an idea can be given with a sign, which it would be impossible to convey to the mind of the dumb person even by puzzling for several minutes over the spelling alphabet. When the pupils have learned to spell, and to talk fairly with their fingers, many of the Instructors wish to abolish these signs. They endeavour to do this as far as they possibly can, in order that the pupils may have a greater amount of exercise in their new language. They try to induce them to write down what they wish to remark, or to spell it out; but this is very tedious, and deaf and dumb persons, when communicating with one another, nearly always continue to use the signs. It is for this reason that deaf and dumb persons should be associated together as little as possible. Their general progress is much more rapid when they mix with persons who are not afflicted. In Donaldson's Hospital for the education of poor children, in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, a considerable number of deaf and dumb children are brought up with the others, being of course taught in a different manner.

Teaching to Speak.—Simultaneously with this instruction the pupils are taught to speak. Here greater difficulty is experienced in all Institutions in arriving at any high proficiency. This is caused, not by the trouble of making them articulate most sounds correctly, but from the fact that the language of signs is so much easier. Deaf and dumb persons cannot be brought to practise talking sufficiently to make very rapid progress. The mode of instruction is as follows: Each child has to be taught separately, and the Teacher has to devote his whole time to the one pupil. The letter *a*, as sounded in father, is first taught. He is made to place his hand upon the throat of the Instructor, and to watch his lips while he says the letter. The pupil then tries to repeat the movements of the muscles which he feels quiver in the Master's throat. Before very long, sometimes a few weeks, he is fairly expert. The letter *e* follows, and the mode of accomplishing it may perhaps be best judged

of from the engraving at page 398. The back of the pupil's hand is placed before the Teacher's lips, and the other hand on the throat. *i* comes next, being sounded by the articulation of *e* directly after *a* (as in father). Then *o* and *u* follow. Most of the consonants are not difficult to add when this much is attained, and syllables and words are taken in due course. The word when spoken is associated with the object by writing it on the slate, showing a picture of it, and by the agency of the usual language of signs.

Results of Instruction.—After a year or two's instruction of this sort several of the pupils can speak sufficiently well to hold a one-sided conversation with considerable ease. Some few who are most expert obtain a remarkable quickness in following a conversation, and understanding every word from the movement of the lips of the speaker. This is attained to so great an extent with some that at times it is almost impossible to believe that they are deaf. The author in this way carried on a conversation with two of the deaf and dumb Teachers who had been brought up at the Institution. One of them was particularly quick and repeated after him by word of mouth the sentences as soon as they were uttered.

Further Instruction—Varying Intelligence.—When they have attained fair proficiency in the knowledge of common things they are taught Geography, Grammar, and Composition. The difference in the aptitude of the pupils is, of course, very great. Some appear almost devoid of intelligence, while others even exhibit talents above the average of persons possessing all their faculties. The physical condition, however, of many of the deaf and dumb children is generally poor, and shows a lowness of development approaching very nearly to that met with at the Idiot Asylum at Earlswood.

Industrial Work usually not attempted.—Industrial work is not now attempted at the London Asylum, for either the boys or girls; nor is it carried on very largely at any of the Institutions. At some few places, however, it is tried with fair success. At Doncaster, printing and book-binding are taught; and at Bath, basket-making and tailoring. Formerly, instruction in tailoring, shoemaking, &c., was carried on in London, but the authorities here and in most other places now consider that if the boys are placed with proper masters when they are apprenticed, they

learn their trade more readily than if an attempt is made to teach them in the School. The girls in nearly all Institutions are taught household duties, together with sewing, knitting, &c., and occasionally they assist in the laundry work of the School. The period during which the Institutions generally retain their pupils varies from four and a half to seven years. It usually depends on the age at which the children are admitted. Seeing how short a time four and a half years is to educate a child having all his faculties, it seems evident that it cannot be sufficient for deaf mutes, who have to commence with such a very great disadvantage, and who must spend a large part of their time before they arrive at that point from which the others start; except for some few, seven years' instruction cannot be more than is absolutely required.

Most earn their Living after being Trained.—Perhaps the most satisfactory proof of the success of the Institutions for the Deaf and Dumb is shown by the ultimate result which the training has upon the pupils in enabling them to earn their living. In this respect these sufferers contrast favourably with the Blind. The occupations of the Deaf and Dumb, as given in the last Census returns, are somewhat remarkable. 3 were in the Civil Service; 1 was a Conveyancer; 48 were Artists and Engravers; 13 were Schoolmasters and Teachers; 9 were Female Teachers; 594 were Agricultural Labourers; 227 were other Labourers; 505 were Shoemakers; 230 were Tailors; 86 were Miners; 66 were Carpenters; 57 were Cotton Manufacturers; 49 were Farmers; 45 were Blacksmiths; and only 106 were described as Paupers. Of the females, a large proportion were Dressmakers, Seamstresses, Domestic Servants, and Laundresses; only 124 were entered as Paupers. At the London Asylum, the subsequent history of each pupil is well known, and but very few after leaving the Institution fail to earn a respectable livelihood.

Cost.—The cost of a Deaf and Dumb School is necessarily considerable, owing to the large staff of Teachers which is required, because much of the instruction must be made personal to each child. The outlay on the London Asylum in 1869 was a little over 30*l.* per head.

Insufficient Provision.—The provisions for teaching the Deaf and Dumb, like those for instruction in most of the branches of

education in this country, are not sufficient to embrace all persons whom it is requisite to educate. Considering the excellent results which are nearly always attained from those who do enter the Schools, this is much to be regretted. Of the 12,236 deaf mutes in England and Wales, it is reasonable to suppose that at least a sixth might with advantage be at school; whereas in 1861, only 1,000 were collected in all the Institutions. The new census of next year will probably show that the number of intelligent and educated deaf and dumb children has greatly increased; but it is feared that it will also prove that a large proportion is still unprovided for.

Conclusion.—Few works, apparently so hopeless as that undertaken by the promoters of this class of School, have ever been accompanied with more encouraging results, both as regards the proportion of pupils improved and their satisfactory after-history. Without education the Deaf and Dumb must of necessity stand very low in the social scale. Experience has clearly shown that by patient training they may be made to participate in many of the pleasures and pursuits enjoyed by other persons. With this fact so apparent no system of education can be considered complete until it provide for all whose affliction gives them so strong a claim on their more favoured fellow-creatures.

44. SCHOOLS FOR CRIPPLES.

Origin of Schools for Cripples.—The Schools which are specially set apart for the training of Cripples, though unfortunately few in number, deserve attention as forming a separate and distinct class of Institution for the special training of a certain section of the community. The first school of the kind originated in a somewhat singular manner, and almost, it may be said, by an accidental circumstance. In 1851 some ladies proposed establishing a female Industrial School, under the regulations of the Committee of Council, which had then recently been issued. They commenced their work with three children, and it so happened that one of these was a cripple. From this the idea was conceived of establishing a school specially for those who had lost the use of their limbs. The sum of 120*l.* was accordingly raised for this purpose, and premises in Hill Street, Dorset Square, were secured. In this way the 'Cripples' Home,' now removed to Marylebone Road, was commenced with two pupils, superintended by a Matron. The want of such an Institution was evident from the success which attended this small beginning.

Existing Schools.—At the present time there are in London three Schools in operation. The original one, for girls only, in the Marylebone Road; another, in connection with it, for boys, in Kensington; and a third, called the 'Cripples' Nursery,' for both boys and girls, in Old Quebec Street. The total number of children thus provided for is about one hundred and eighty. Besides these in London, no regular Cripples' Schools exist in this country. Those children of the poorer classes who are afflicted in such a manner as to require peculiar treatment, if they obtain any education at all, are mixed with other children, and receive no special training applicable to their condition, either physical or mental.

Statistics.—The number of Cripples in England alone is estimated to be a hundred thousand. What proportion of these belongs to the poorer class of the community, and how many require peculiar training, it is impossible to ascertain. It must, however, very far exceed the number at present provided for, after deducting from it those whose deformity does not render them incapable of joining an ordinary school.

Assistance of Refuge Girls.—The Institution in Marylebone provides for one hundred girls; and of these usually about seventy-five are cripples, the remainder being able-bodied Refuge Girls who are sent there by a Magistrate's order, under the Certified Industrial Schools Act. The latter do the work of the house, such as scrubbing, cooking, &c., and are very useful in attending to the Cripples, who, from the nature of their complaints, are unable to perform these duties. Without some such combined plan, the expense of the School would be considerably increased.

Division of Work.—The Cripples' work is divided into two branches, viz., School occupation and Industrial occupation.

The School Occupation.

Subjects and Hours of Instruction.—This forms but a small portion of the daily avocation of the pupils. It is usually limited to an hour or an hour and a half each morning, and is presided over chiefly by voluntary teachers. The subjects taught rarely go beyond Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic; but thorough instruction is given in Religious knowledge. Those who are less advanced than others receive additional instruction in the evening. These extra lessons are given on a certain number of evenings each week by a paid certificated Teacher, who comes from the Home and Colonial Training College for the purpose.

The Industrial Occupation.

Description of Occupations.—The professed object of the School is to teach the pupils some trade, and consequently the Industrial occupation is considered the more important branch of the work. With the exception of the short time devoted to Theoretical instruction, the whole of the working day is given up to Industrial pursuits. Some of the girls are employed in

making mats and baskets ; but the majority devote their time to the manufacture of bonnets. These are sold to Charity Schools, Workhouses, &c., at one shilling each, a price which is but a trifle above the actual cost. Occasionally orders are received for as many as 1,500 at one time. An illustration of the School under instruction is given at page 450. A profit is usually made on all manufactured articles, but there is no attempt to render the work remunerative in a commercial sense. The object of the School being to teach the children, it is more desirable to obtain plentiful employment for them than to secure a larger profit on fewer articles. Consequently, commissions are rarely refused if they can be executed so as to leave a balance, however small, on the right side.

Shop to Dispose of Goods.—In order to facilitate the disposal of the articles which are manufactured, the Committee has established a shop in Baker Street, which, though expensive to maintain, has proved a good means of advertising the Institution. It might be worth consideration whether such shops, which have also been opened by some of the Blind Asylums, the Idiot Asylum, and other Schools of a like nature, might not with advantage be combined into one general establishment for the sale of goods made at various Institutions. Considerable saving would thereby be effected, and at the same time a more imposing and attractive advertisement secured for all.

Regulations for Admission.—The ages of those admitted to Cripples' Schools vary considerably. The Nursery in Quebec Street provides for children as young as two years ; but those Institutions which profess to teach some Industrial occupation, do not receive inmates before they are twelve years old. This is on account of the difficulty experienced in teaching a handicraft to younger children. Some have even passed the age of twenty before they are received. The rule is to retain them for three years, whatever may have been their age on admission, as by that time it is considered that they should have succeeded in learning a trade. If it becomes evident that anyone is incapable of thus benefiting by the Institution, he or she is sent away as soon as it is thoroughly ascertained that the teaching must fail to produce any practical or lasting result. At each Institution a few Cripples are kept permanently. Some of these are retained from motives of Charity, on account of their complete helplessness and being past any hope of improvement.

This number it is not desirable to increase, as it causes the Institution to partake more of the nature of a Hospital than of a School. Others are kept permanently as Monitors, and receive a small salary by way of pocket money. These are selected from the most intelligent pupils, who exhibit a promptitude in acquiring instruction in the Industrial work, and are also able to teach others.

Mode of Admission—Conditions—Payments.—The children admitted belong to several ranks in the social scale, though the majority of them are from the poorest classes. They are required to be free from any mental disorder, and must also enjoy full use of their arms, hands, and eyes. They would otherwise be unable to take advantage of the instruction afforded them, and the appliances of the Institution would be to a great extent thrown away. The charge for each child is 8*l.* per annum. This is generally defrayed by some friend, who undertakes to be responsible for the amount. The mode of admitting pupils is different to that pursued at many other Charities of a like nature. No election takes place, but Cripples are received as vacancies arise, according to the priority of their applications, or according to their condition, and the probability of their profiting by the course of training to which they may be subjected.

Strictness of Regulations.—The rules of the London Institutions are somewhat rigid. When once admitted, none are allowed to leave, even for a single day, during the whole three years of their stay. Beyond walking out with the Matron for daily exercise, they never leave the building for any purpose whatever. Once in every three months, they are allowed to receive visitors; and once a month, those who wish it are permitted to write to their friends. Beyond this, they are altogether excluded from the outer world. These regulations, to a considerable extent, preclude parents even in very needy circumstances from attempting to obtain the benefits of the training offered to their crippled children. The system rather seems to encourage parents to neglect their afflicted offspring, and discourages those whose parental feelings are too strong to allow them to be completely alienated from their children for so long a time. It seems desirable that this restriction should be somewhat relaxed, unless the Committee has unusually strong reasons for its continuance.

Disposal of Pupils.—When the period of training is over, the

pupils are usually apprenticed, the girls to Milliners and Dressmakers, the boys to Carpenters and other tradesmen. A few return to their homes, and there support themselves by taking in work. It is usual for the Institution to pay a small fee on the apprenticeship of any child. In some instances employers have made objections to taking Cripples into their service; but as a rule, those apprenticed from these Schools have proved themselves, in spite of their misfortune, to be in no way inferior to others. A correspondence is usually kept up with those who have left, and an annual dinner is given, at which most of the old pupils assemble. From the information thus obtained, and from various other sources, it is found that very few of them become chargeable to the parish, or fall into a state of pauperism, after leaving the Institution.

Regulations for Refuge Girls.—The Refuge Girls have to attend to theoretical school work with the Cripples, at least one hour each day. The rest of their time is taken up with household duties, and attending to their fellow inmates. They are divided into sections, and each division attends to one class of duty for a fortnight. Thus, for that period, a detachment is engaged every day in the laundry, in washing the clothes of the Institution, as well as a limited number of those sent by private families. This is all done under the superintendence of a paid washerwoman. For another fortnight, this same division is drafted to the household work of Scrubbing, Cleaning, &c.; and after that, they take their turn in the Cooking department.

Discipline—Sanitary Arrangements.—The discipline of the Cripples' Homes is well maintained, and that without any very severe rules. The Refuge children, perhaps, require a greater amount of strictness than the others. The greatest attention is paid to cleanliness. Each inmate has a warm bath twice a week, all the year round. The Doctor is very particular on this point, and certainly the plans adopted, coupled as they are with good and plentiful food, have the effect of materially improving the physical appearance of a new inmate in a few weeks. The Boys' Institution, at Kensington, is conducted on exactly the same principles as the Female School in the Marylebone Road. It is smaller, and the boys are taught a greater variety of occupations.

Cost of Training.—The cost of the training and bringing up of the Cripples is necessarily somewhat great. They require considerable attention, and though a good part of this is given by

the Refuge children, much remains to be done for them involving special and expensive supervision. Their diet has to be on a liberal scale, frequently including wine and other expensive necessaries. The Refuge children receive the same regular food as the Cripples. It is estimated that the annual cost of each inmate of the Institution is about 28*l.* per head. For every pupil, therefore, admitted it is necessary to supplement about 20*l.*, in addition to the payment guaranteed by friends.

Benefits of Training should be Extended.—The training of Cripples is not necessarily so special as that of the Blind or the Deaf and Dumb. Many are able to attend an ordinary school, and receive an equal share of the benefits to be derived from it with those who enjoy the full use of their limbs. In the teaching of a trade, however, considerable advantages accrue from some general and systematic plan of training. Not only does this show itself in the greater quickness with which the trade is learned, but in the improvement in health and the greater development of the physical powers which is the result of a three years' course of instruction. Results show that by proper training, the inconveniences caused by deformity may be much reduced, if the general system be maintained in health and the powers of those limbs which are not affected be more thoroughly developed. With these considerations, and bearing in mind the success which has attended the Institutions already existing, it is to be hoped that any new system of education will include among its provisions some means whereby a much larger proportion of the crippled poor may be systematically trained and educated.

45. SUNDAY SCHOOLS.

Origin—Catechising.—The origin of the system of teaching children on Sundays dates back to a very remote period, though that of Sunday Schools, as now conducted, is comparatively recent. After the Reformation it was especially enacted that curates were on Sundays and holidays publicly in the church to instruct and examine the children. This excellent custom has, to a great extent, fallen into disuse, but it may be considered as a principal link in the chain of events which led to the formation of 'Sunday Schools.' This mode of catechising was not limited to the poorer children of the parish, the direction being that all parents, masters, and dames were to send their children, servants, and apprentices to be ordered and instructed by the curate, with a view 'to breed them to learning, or some useful and honest employ.'

Teaching confined to Clergy.—At this period the whole work of education, both Secular and Religious, was looked upon as strictly the prerogative of the Clergy. By Canon 77 no man was allowed to teach either in a public school or a private house unless licensed by the Bishop under his hand and seal, after having subscribed a belief in the Thirty-nine Articles and other matters of faith. Several Acts of Parliament, as the 23 Eliz. c. i., and the 1 Jac. I. c. 4, s. 9, and 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 4, give this instruction even more clearly. The carrying out of so stringent a rule, however, though enforced in several instances, was modified by various regulations and the change in public opinion. Greater liberty was the more necessary from the fact that the teaching of children of the poor for about a hundred years after the Reformation, thus limited by law to the Clergy and licensed Teachers, was entirely neglected. Not indeed that the Clergy and those under them were in all cases to blame

because, owing to the inadequate provision left for them, they were unable to cope with the heavy duties consequent on a steadily increasing population.

Instruction almost entirely Religious.— The education thus scantily provided up to the middle of the seventeenth century was confined for the poorer classes to that of a *Religious* character, Secular instruction in Reading being only accidentally involved, so to speak, in referring to the Scriptures and other sacred works.

First Sunday School Teachers.—In 1763, the Rev. Theophilus Lindsay, Vicar of Catterick in Yorkshire, opened a Sunday School in his parish, which was attended by 200 children, whom he taught to read. Mrs. Cappe, the wife of the Rev. Newcome Cappe, also about the same time formed a similar class. This lady possessed most valuable qualifications for teaching, not the least of which was an extremely pleasant manner. So many children came for instruction that she had to divide them into classes, and for a long period her spare time on Sundays, in the intervals of Divine service, seems to have been entirely devoted to teaching. All were taught to read, and, when thus advanced, further instruction was given in the Catechism, &c. Miss Bate, of High Wycombe, in 1769, also devoted herself to Sunday teaching.

First Regular Schools—R. Raikes.—The actual originator, however, of Sunday Schools, conducted on anything like a system, was Robert Raikes, a printer of Gloucester, and Editor of the 'Gloucester Journal.' He was a man of humane disposition, and had often been struck with the manner in which Sunday, in the poorer parts of his own town, was spent. The children, having nothing to do, and being unable to read or otherwise occupy and amuse themselves, necessarily ran wild, and got into all sorts of mischief. In agricultural districts the farmers regarded the day of rest as one upon which they were obliged to take special precautions against the depredations of juvenile offenders.

Raikes' Chief Object—Paid Teachers.—With the assistance of the Rev. W. Stock, Curate of St. John's, Gloucester, Mr. Raikes opened a regular Free School on Sundays in that parish, commencing with about ninety children and four paid Mistresses. Their chief object appears to have been to teach the children to read. In the 'Gloucester Journal,' November 3, 1783, Mr. Raikes

writes: 'To remedy this evil [the misconduct of the children on Sunday], persons duly qualified are employed to instruct those who cannot read, and those that may have learnt to read are taught the Catechism, and conducted to Church. By thus keeping their minds engaged, the day passes profitably and not disagreeably.'

Rapid Spread of Sunday Schools.—Through the energy of Mr. Raikes, the growth of the Sunday School system was very rapid. He gave extensive publicity to the work doing at the Gloucester School, through the medium of his newspaper, and it was not long before a Society was founded, whose object was the establishing of a Sunday School in every parish in the kingdom. It was necessary that funds should be raised for this purpose, and accordingly a subscription list, headed by Queen Charlotte, was speedily set on foot.

Statistics of Sunday Schools.—At this time there were no places in the country in which the children of the poor could receive instruction, except the Charity Schools, and these were only to be found in comparatively few of the more populous districts. The clergy, accordingly, of all denominations warmly took up the Sunday School movement. No very accurate account is given of its development, but it is stated that in 1787 no less than 234,000 children were in the Sunday Schools of England and Wales. Five years later, the number was computed at half a million, though this was merely a rough estimate, and probably beyond the truth.

Falling off of Funds—Voluntary Teachers.—Like all movements of this kind, which depend to a great extent on voluntary aid, led by the energy of one or two individuals, as soon as the novelty had somewhat subsided a marked diminution in the funds took place. At first the teachers were paid, and consequently the Schools, which were all free, depended for their support entirely on the liberality of the public. This liberality appears to have considerably fallen off, for even at Gloucester, after Raikes's death, the Sunday Schools were for a time all shut up for want of funds. In consequence of this difficulty, the plan of paying the teachers was discontinued; and, at the commencement of the present century, nearly all the Sunday Schools throughout England were conducted by voluntary teachers. This plan has continued ever since, and probably at the present moment there is not a single school where the Teacher receives any remuneration for his services on Sunday.

Disadvantages of Voluntary Teachers. - The voluntary plan has its defects as well as its advantages. It is true that the class of persons engaged in teaching improved. The children of the middle class, and many of those of the higher, have come forward as teachers, and from their superior education are well qualified for their self-imposed duties; but it is at the same time to be regretted that their attendance is not so regular as it should be; the success of a school, in all cases, mainly depending upon the persistent energy of each individual engaged.

Sunday School Union.—In 1803 the Sunday School Union of Teachers was formed; and this Association, which is now in a flourishing condition, has been the means of uniting the Teachers of the various Schools, though its work lies more particularly with Dissenting bodies. The Church of England Sunday School Institute was formed in 1843.

Extension of Schools.—The number of these Schools appears to have steadily increased during the first twenty years of this century, which is probably attributable to the general growth of the educational system throughout the country, under the National and the British and Foreign School Societies. In the Parliamentary return published in 1818 there appear to have been 5,463 Sunday Schools, with 477,225 scholars, or just four per cent. of the total population. Seventeen years later the number of scholars had increased to 1,548,890, half of whom did not go to any other school whatever during the week, the average of such being greater in the agricultural districts than in the towns.

Evidence of Mr. Dunn.—The opinion of Mr. Henry Dunn, the Secretary of the British and Foreign School Society, on the practical working of these Sunday Schools in 1835 is given in his evidence before the Select Committee of the House of Commons on Education. He says, 'Sunday School instruction has been very greatly increased, but I put that out of the question, because I never saw a Sunday School which I should consider worth taking into account as a place of literary instruction. I think that the moral and religious influence of Sunday Schools cannot be estimated too highly; but I think that it is impossible to communicate literary knowledge to any extent during the few hours that can be devoted to such a task on Sunday.'

Objections to Secular Subjects.—It seems, indeed, that a feeling

then existed in many places against combining instruction in reading and writing, particularly the latter, as being of too secular a character for Sunday employment; and that by pursuing such a course of teaching serious consequences might follow. This was so much the case that Dr. Pole, in his valuable pamphlet on the History of Adult Schools, published in 1814, goes at some length into arguments against the idea that by teaching writing in Sunday Schools the poor were being taught to commit forgery! His arguments are the more curious from the fact that he based the absurdity of such statements on the imperfection of the teaching at Sunday Schools rather than on the utter foolishness of the assertion. He says, 'That teaching the poor to write would be placing in their hands a power of committing forgery is a sentiment which it is hoped will not occasion any alarm to the public mind. It cannot be expected that in these humble seminaries they will be made complete penmen, or that they should arrive at that degree of perfection that is required to exercise the atrocious practice in question' [i.e. the act of forgery]. The writer very fairly continued to argue that such reasoning would refuse the advantage of writing to the whole mass of the population.

Teaching at Baldwin's Gardens.—The mode of teaching at some of the Sunday Schools may be judged of from the account given by the Central Society of Education in 1837, of a School at Baldwin's Gardens. About 120 children attended, 80 of whom could not read. They were taught a hymn, or a passage of Scripture, by having it read to them over and over again, until they had learned it by heart; after this, a chapter was explained. Those who could read had to learn something by heart during the week, and repeat it on the Sunday following. Such was the method of teaching usually employed, and in those schools where reading was taught, the progress made was very slow. Not one Sunday School in a hundred, according to Mr. Laller, the Secretary of the School Union, taught writing on the Sunday.

Stockport Sunday School.—A remarkable school at Stockport, which even now is the wonder of Sunday Schools, formed a striking contrast to those of the character just mentioned. It accommodated 3,000 children, and the managers were bold enough, even in those days, to teach them to read, write, and cipher, arguing that it was 'lawful to do good on the Sabbath

day,' particularly as the children had no opportunity of learning at any other time.

Incapacity of Teachers.—Some of the Instructors, though no doubt very worthy persons, were totally unfit to teach. In the agricultural districts this was especially the case. An example is given in Kent, where the Schoolmaster was an agricultural labourer; he could just spell through the words of the Testament, but could not write, and in mentioning the death of two of the daughters of the Vicar, he remarked, 'You see, sir, now they be all dead like.'

Effect of Increase of Week-Day Schools.—The growth of Day Schools in all parts of the country, which has followed the introduction of State aid to Education, has rendered it less necessary for Sunday Schools to be devoted to any but religious instruction. As a class, these latter are extremely popular, and better attended than the Day Schools. This may be accounted for, partly from the fact that the day on which they meet enables many to attend who have nothing much to do, and who on other days are engaged at work.

Statistics of Denominational Schools.—The Royal Commission on Education, known as 'the Duke of Newcastle's Commission,' obtained much information relative to Sunday Schools. The following statistics of the year 1858 are valuable.

	Number of Schools	Number of Scholars		
		Boys	Girls	Total
Church of England .	22,236	540,303	552,519	1,092,822
Wesleyan . . .	4,311	224,519	229,183	453,702
Congregational . .	1,935	128,081	139,145	267,226
Primitive Methodist .	1,493	68,273	68,656	136,929
Baptist	1,420	77,153	82,349	159,502
Calvinistic Methodist .	962	60,025	52,715	112,740
Methodist . . .	336	24,943	26,574	51,517
United States Free Churches . . .	402	30,540	32,069	62,609
Roman Catholic . .	263	15,768	19,690	35,458
Unitarian . . .	133	6,940	6,202	13,142
Non-Denominational .	23	1,537	1,125	2,662
Jews (Sabbath) . .	2	18	70	88
Total . .	33,516	1,178,100	1,210,297	2,388,397

The number of children at Week-day Schools was estimated by the same authority at the time when this statement was drawn up, as 1,553,212, or not very much more than half the number of the Sunday scholars.

Bible at times too much of a Lesson-book.—The character of the teaching of course varies with that of the church or sect to which each school belongs. In a good many instances, it is to be feared that the Bible is made a mere dry lesson-book, and that chapters are spelt through and learned by heart in such a manner as to prevent the pupils from really being interested in or understanding the true and simple teaching of the Scriptures. For children nothing could be more profitable than lessons on the Parables, and such-like teaching, which might be calculated to interest them, and at the same time cause them to associate religion with the practice of their every-day life.

Present Use of Sunday Schools.—At the present time, Sunday Schools, as before stated, must be considered almost entirely as places of religious instruction, and perhaps to some extent as nurseries for particular doctrines. It is to be regretted that in some places rival sects, while straining every nerve to fill their Sunday Schools, entirely lose sight of the importance of their Day Classes. It happens, too, that clergymen sometimes prohibit children attending their Day Schools unless they belong to the Sunday School of their own particular denomination. In spite of these occasional abuses, however, these Institutions do a great work, and when conducted with intelligence and care, from really Christian and not party motives, there can be no doubt that they confer an incalculable benefit on the rising generation of the poor of this country. A great debt of gratitude is due to the thousands of voluntary teachers who are weekly engaged in this work.

46. FRIENDS' FIRST-DAY SCHOOLS.

Origin.—The history of these Schools, which may in other words be called Quaker Sunday Schools, dates back to the commencement of the present century, though their more rapid growth and extension are due to the formation of the Friends' First-Day School Association in 1847.

Earliest Schools.—In 1800, a school of this description was in operation at Lothersdale, for boys, and another at Nottingham for girls, but the attendance at the former was small. The Bristol Schools were commenced about ten years later, and may be said to have been the first systematically carried out on a large scale. The Society of Friends has always been well represented in Bristol, and as a body has usually been amongst the foremost in encouraging objects of philanthropy and education in that city. The Boys' School was for many years carried on in an old building in a very poor district of the city, and in its early days the scholars were taught to write by forming letters on sand. It was subsequently removed to more commodious premises, formed, curiously enough, by the partial reconstruction of some old monastic buildings—the street in which they are situated bearing the singularly compounded name of 'Quakers' Friars.'

Statistics—Strength of Teaching Staff.—In 1847, when the First-Day School Association was formed, there were 17 Schools in the kingdom, employing 145 male and 83 female Teachers, half of whom were in average attendance .1,249 males and 619 females were under instruction, 834 of whom usually attended in the morning, and 957 in the afternoon. It will therefore be seen that the teaching power was considerable, in proportion to the number of students.

Subjects of Instruction.—The instruction at these Schools,

though necessarily religious, is not and has never been quite so strictly limited in its range of subjects as is the case in most Sunday Schools. The object the Society of Friends had in starting them, was to draw in all the ignorant and uneducated persons they could collect, and, by every means in their power, to endeavour to improve them. In many of the Schools writing is taught, and it is not found to be incompatible with, but rather subservient to the higher purposes of the Schools. The First-Day Schools of the Friends have, however, of late years become more decidedly of a religious character, the necessity for elementary instruction having in some cases happily lessened.

Not Attended by Friends.—With very rare exceptions, the persons who frequent these Schools are not members of the Society of Friends. Some few of the scholars have, however, become members. The classes are chiefly made up of those who were once Sunday idlers, and of the ignorant youth of both sexes, who constitute so considerable a body in all our large towns. Every effort is made to induce them to attend some place of worship, but they are in no way urged to go to the Meeting House of the Friends. One of the Teachers remarks, in an essay published in 1867 on the subject of inducing the scholars to go to a place of worship, that he appealed to them to go and worship God 'anywhere, only somewhere.' This is a fair sample of the liberal spirit which is exhibited generally among the Schools.

Religious Instruction.—The religious meetings of the Friends, as might be supposed, are not very attractive to the wild natures of the pupils attending the First-Day Schools. The authority above quoted writes: 'They (the scholars) have also been frequently invited to attend Friends' meetings. The result has been that some of the most sober and intelligent have come for a few times. But most of them soon cease to attend.' As the only alternative, it has been found desirable to give them religious instruction in the School, and to leave them to go to meeting or to some other place of worship as they feel disposed, after some good effect has been produced on them.

Birmingham Schools.—The Birmingham Schools are perhaps the most efficient in the kingdom, and are by far the most numerously attended. These schools, to a large extent, owed their origin (or at all events their development in their present form) to the large-hearted and practical philanthropy of the late

Joseph Sturge. He encouraged and assisted the Teachers in their work, by his counsel, presence, and pecuniary contributions, at a time when there was in many minds a prejudice against the Schools. Joseph Sturge also cordially assisted in the formation of the Friends' First-Day School Association, already referred to. In 1870 the largest average attendance in one day at Birmingham was 809 adult males, 290 adult females, and 285 boys and youths. A short account may be now given of each of these divisions, and although they are taken more particularly from the schools in this town, and although many Friends' First-Day Schools exist without including all of these branches, yet it must be considered that the whole, as formed at Birmingham, make up a typical and complete specimen of the Institutions now under consideration.

The Male Adult Schools.

Students—Hours of Meeting—Subjects Taught.—These are composed of grown-up men, who meet every Sunday. At Birmingham the hour is half-past seven in the morning, and the work continues until about half-past nine. This early hour of meeting is a remarkable characteristic. The subjects taught are Reading and Writing and Scripture knowledge generally.

Extreme Ignorance of Pupils.—Many of the pupils come to the school thoroughly ignorant of the very rudiments of Reading and Writing. The chief difficulty found with this class is to induce them to enter the School. They feel keenly their own deficiency, and a sense of shame frequently prevents their attempting to improve themselves by going to school, and thus exhibiting their defects to others. If once induced to enter, this wears off rapidly, as each one finds many others as ignorant as himself. Frequent instances could be pointed to where these very persons have made rapid and satisfactory progress in Reading and Writing in a few months.

Teaching by elder Pupils successful.—At Birmingham, the system of Elementary Classes taught by the elder scholars has been tried with great success. It not only increases the teaching power, but it secures to the school the profitable engagement of those who by their improvement have become 'too respectable' properly to continue as part of the establishment. That the teaching of these elder scholars at Birmingham is satisfactory

may be judged from the fact that in one class, half of the pupils were qualified in a twelvemonth to go to the upper division. The friendly feeling which exists between pupil and Teacher is frequently the source of remark, and is exhibited by mutual interchange of little presents, which, however trifling, are pleasing tokens of kindliness and goodwill.

The Female Adult Schools.

How conducted.—These are conducted on a similar plan to the Male School, and with generally the same results. The only difficulty is, that frequently the young women get married just when they are beginning to feel interested in their work. Although this to a certain extent is a good thing for the School, in that it makes room for those who require the benefits of instruction more, yet it is always a source of regret to the Teacher to lose her best pupils when they are showing signs of improvement.

The Junior Division for Youths.

Ages—Uncertain Attendance—Over-work.—The minimum age of admission is fifteen, which has within the last few years been raised from fourteen. The opinion of the managers of these Schools at Birmingham is, that they should almost be limited to adults. Great difficulty is experienced with the youths, as their attendance is so irregular and uncertain: half of the number who enter frequently leave again within a single quarter. The Teachers remark with great truth, that much forbearance is needed in such a class towards the very ignorant, as their apathy and indifference are often due not only to the deplorable neglect of their early education, a circumstance they are in no way responsible for, but also to their having been systematically overworked in early life. A remarkable instance of this is reported of a boy from this very School. 'We have a boy of fourteen employed in one of the smaller sword manufactories (where a large contract had to be completed in a certain time), who was required to work in a dark shop at the unhealthy employment of glazing blades on the stone, from six o'clock in the morning, all night, till six o'clock the next morning, three days in the week—that is, all Monday, Wednesday, and Friday nights—and full days through the week besides, only getting, as he said, "a little sleep after I had done eating in the brief half-

hours for breakfast and tea, and the hour for dinner," and continuing this excessive labour (which had to be performed mostly in a standing position) for nearly *six months*.' This great evil of overworking children is as rife in Birmingham as in London. It is not surprising, therefore, if children who are sent to work at the age of seven, or even younger, become in after-life listless, and indifferent to education or any sort of mental improvement.

Savings Bank attached—Library.—To each School a Savings Bank is attached, and although the day on which it meets is Sunday, the deposits are taken in, and by this means a large sum is annually saved instead of being devoted to useless if not vicious purposes. In the Junior School alone, at Birmingham, this amounted to about 120*l.* in one year. A library is frequently added to a First-Day School, from which books can be borrowed by the pupils on payment of a small subscription. No fee is required from those whose attendance during the quarter is very regular. In the Adult Classes Sick Funds are also established, to provide a weekly sum in case of illness. The money in hand is usually divided at the end of each year.

Average Attendance of Scholars.—The success of a school may usually be judged of to a great extent by the average attendance of the scholars. In this respect the First-Day Schools show a remarkable result. From the percentage of attendances given in the Report of the present year (1870) it appears that in the sixty-seven Schools in connection with the Association, the results are as follows:—

In	1	School	the average attendance was	over	80	per cent.
	20	„	„	from 70	to 80	„
	24	„	„	„ 60	70	„
	17	„	„	„ 50	60	„
	5	„	„	„ 40	50	„

Birmingham has best Attendance—Regulations to secure this.—The highest average is at the Birmingham Adult Male School, which amounted to 80·02 per cent. for the quarter. This may, perhaps, be due to the strictness of the regulations, which require that those who profess to be on the rolls of the School shall not absent themselves without leave, under pain of dismissal. In the upper division, all who are absent for five days in a quarter, are warned; and should they continue irregular, they are dismissed. Those who are thus punished are not

allowed to enter the School again for, at least, a twelvemonth. Some might think this rule severe, and likely to be detrimental to the School, whose interest it is to reach the lowest classes and those caring least to come. In reality this is not so, for the poor usually are more anxious to get that which requires some effort of their own to attain than to accept that which is unwillingly forced upon them. The experience at Birmingham certainly bears out this view, for very few Day or Sunday Schools, of any description, have such a high average attendance.

Action of Association.— The Association does not, in any way, exercise control over the First-Day Schools. Its objects are to diffuse information with regard to them, to establish regular intercourse among them, by correspondence, by mutual conference, and by other means to increase their efficiency, and to encourage the formation of new schools. A meeting of the deputies from all the Schools is held every year, and at this meeting any alteration in the rules or other matter of importance is discussed and mutually agreed upon.

Chiefly confined to Adults.—As already stated, the tendency of the Society's Schools is to give increased attention to the Adult Classes. When first commenced, this was not so much the case; but of late years the attention of the Society of Friends has been largely turned to the Adult Schools, and indeed, in not a few instances, almost to the exclusion of the Children's. In this respect they differ in an essential particular from the ordinary Sunday Schools of other denominations, which are usually composed chiefly, if not entirely, of young children. Considering them from this point of view, with the present extensively deficient state of Adult Education, their action is most important.

Schools in London.—London was for many years far behind other places in the development of First-Day Schools. For several years previous to 1857, that held in the Old Room at Spitalfields, with some four or five hundred scholars, was the only one in the Metropolis. Since that time good Schools have been opened at Ratcliff, Shoreditch, Westminster, Deptford, Walthamstow, Holloway, and other places.

Hours of Attendance.—The early hour of meeting, as has been already incidentally mentioned, is one of the features of these Schools. When first commenced they were usually held in the afternoon, but in many instances great benefit was found in

changing the hour to the early morning, and now the Birmingham Schools for men meet at half-past seven. In many other places they assemble at eight or half-past, whilst in some the afternoon hour is still adhered to, to suit the requirements of the localities.

Statistics.—At the present time the statistics of the working of these Schools are as follow:—67 are in connection with the Association. They are situated in 50 different places, and employ 586 male and 385 female voluntary Teachers. These give instruction to 7,671 men and boys and 4,752 women and girls, making a total of 12,423 pupils. Besides these there are 19 Schools unconnected with the Association, having 88 male and 69 female Teachers, and 957 male and 727 female students. The total number of pupils in all the Schools is therefore 14,107.

Attendance of Teachers.—The attendance of the Teachers is carefully noted, the Society of Friends being fully aware that almost everything depends on the energy and punctuality with which the Teachers fulfil their part of the work. Their labour is necessarily a labour of love, but it becomes almost useless if irregular and spasmodic. A careful record is kept in each school, and it appears that, out of a hundred meetings, every Teacher was on the average present the following number of times, viz.:—

	Male	Female
In Schools Associated with the Society . . .	83	84
In Schools not Associated with the Society . . .	80	82

It will therefore be seen that the attendance of the female Teachers is slightly more regular than that of the male Teachers.

Conclusion.—The order, discipline, and general tone of these Schools is quite in keeping with the general character of the Society to which they belong. They are conducted on the most liberal principles, and embrace many of a very ignorant class, who are too old to be likely, without considerable pressure, to enter the ordinary Sunday School. Their extension and success must be the wish of all who are sincerely interested in the improvement of the community.

47. RAGGED SCHOOLS.

Early History—Public Grants.—The distinction between Reformatory, Industrial, and Ragged Schools before State aid was given to Education was not very clear. Many were called Industrial Ragged Schools, and in fact there were but few of the last-named class which did not include Industrial training as a branch of their work. By whatever name they were designated, all had one common object, namely, to endeavour to reclaim that portion of the lower stratum of the community which was growing up in vice and ignorance. For many years Ragged Schools were similar to those now called 'Industrial,' and were eligible to receive public grants from the Committee of Council under the conditions of the Minutes of 1846. These grants were usually for rent, purchase of tools, and assistance towards the Teachers' salaries. The amounts thus expended by the State, however, were not large. In 1850 the Bristol Ragged School was the only one which took advantage of the aid, and received a grant of 8*l.* In 1855 the number had increased to four, namely, two schools at Bristol, one at Gloucester, and another at Liverpool, and the amount of assistance had risen to 292*l.*

Petition for increased Grants.—In 1852 a memorial was presented to the Committee of Council from the Preventive and Reformatory School Committee, urging that additional grants should be made to Ragged Schools. This memorial stated that these Schools were intended for children who, by reason of the vice, neglect, or extreme poverty of their parents, were inadmissible to the ordinary Elementary Schools aided by Government. It was urged that the existing provisions on which assistance was granted under the Industrial Schools Minute were virtually such as to exclude Ragged Schools from reaping any benefit

from them. The reasons for this were, 1st, that the Masters were not qualified to pass the examination, though they were often far better fitted to teach Ragged School children than those more highly educated; 2nd, that the Industrial training given to these children was not intended to teach a trade, so much as to instil habits of industry. In consideration of these circumstances, the Memorialists petitioned, 1st, that Masters who gave satisfactory proof of their being fitted to conduct a Ragged School should be eligible to be aided by a Government grant; 2nd, that Monitors assisting in these Schools should likewise receive payment from the State; and 3rd, that the conditions of the Building Grants should be somewhat modified, so as to meet the circumstances of Ragged Schools. The Committee of Council considered this memorial, but found it unadvisable to make the alterations proposed.

Stoppage of State Grants—All Schools Free.—In this way the Ragged Schools continued to receive the public aid, to which they were entitled by virtue of their fulfilling the conditions required of Industrial Schools, without having any peculiar advantages themselves. The Acts of Parliament by which Industrial Schools were 'certified,' led to a complete change in the system of payment. They ultimately brought about the regulation, that no school of this description, whether styled a Refuge, a Home, an Asylum, or Ragged School, which admitted of being certified, should obtain any assistance whatever, unless it consented to be examined, and was granted the certificate under the Act. From that time, therefore, all State aid to Ragged Schools, as they now exist, has ceased; and this large class of Institutions is supported entirely by private subscriptions. A main characteristic of them all is, that they are free, and consequently cannot depend on the usual resource derived from the children's pence.

Early Schools.—Among the earliest Schools was the one established in 1835, in Gray's Yard, which was called a 'Free School.' Others started shortly after by Miss Howell, chiefly in Westminster, were styled 'Schools for the Destitute.' In 1844, when the Ragged School Union was originated, it appeared that there were twenty of these Institutions in London; and the number has gone on increasing so rapidly that now there is hardly a district of London, or a provincial town, where one at least has not been established. Many have been originated by

persons in an obscure position in life. The founder of the Schools at Portsmouth was one John Pounds, who is generally accepted as the originator of Ragged Schools. He used to teach with pieces of paper torn from the hoardings. A story is told of his inducing a 'Paddy' to attend, having gained his heart one day by running after him and presenting him with a roasted potato. A cobbler started one of the Schools in Kent Street; a tinker the one at Hatcham; and a chimney-sweep the one at Windsor. Many have been set on foot by the liberality of private persons, and through the exertions of the Ragged School Union.

Classification of Ragged Schools.—These Schools may be divided, as follows, into—

1. Sunday Schools.
2. Day Schools for Girls, Boys, and Infants.
3. Night Schools.
4. Industrial Classes.

I. The Sunday Schools.

Description—Statistics—Ragged Churches.—With the exception that the children who attend them are generally not so well dressed, not possessing a Sunday suit, these are similar to most other Sunday Schools. Detailed statistics are only to be obtained with accuracy in those Schools in connection with the Ragged School Union in London. It appears from the last year's report, that there are nearly 250 Sunday Ragged Schools in and about the Metropolis, having about 30,000 pupils in average attendance. Reading is taught, and religious instruction of an unsectarian character is given to all. At some of the Schools, the classes meet three times a day—morning, afternoon, and evening. In about ninety places in the neighbourhood of London, Ragged Churches, as they are somewhat oddly called, have been built. At the Field Lane Ragged Church, the average number of worshippers is 1,000; at the one in Hartshorn Court, 450; at Hope Place, 400; and at George Yard, 200.

II. The Day Schools.

Statistics—Instruction.—Abuse of Schools.—These number in London about 200, with 23,000 pupils. They are usually conducted by a paid Master, who devotes the whole of his time to

the work of superintending the various operations which are connected with a Ragged School. The Master's wife is generally the Mistress to the girls, and in the larger schools paid Monitors are employed, who usually have been selected from the most promising pupils. The amount of instruction rarely, if ever, exceeds the first four rules of Arithmetic, with Reading and Writing. The class of children instructed is presumed to be of the very poorest, living in the most crowded districts. No doubt a large number come under this designation, but not a few better-to-do persons are found ready to take advantage for their children of the free instruction thus held out to them, and even at times almost pressed upon them. In the East-end of London numerous cases of such abuse will be found. Men who have been employed regularly for years at one work with good wages, send their children to the Ragged School to save the pence required at other places. Often children migrate from school to school, and try all the Ragged Schools in their neighbourhood, alternately with those charging a fee. In this way, numerous examples can be found of children leaving a Ragged School to attend another where a fee as high as a shilling a month is required to be paid in advance. Without the greatest care, Ragged Schools will always be liable to these abuses.

Irregularity of Attendance—Suggestion to Improve.—Great difficulty is experienced in securing the regular attendance of the children. The admission being free in the majority of instances, the children are allowed to come and go at almost any hour they think proper. This evil is perhaps more rife in this class of school than in any other, as not a few Teachers and Managers are afraid to be strict, lest they should drive away their pupils. The mistake of this idea, however, is shown by a plan which was tried at a large school for inducing the children to be regular. The Master made a rule of locking the door at a fixed hour each morning and afternoon. After this, no one was admitted on any pretext whatever, and the fear of being excluded, and not *allowed* to enter, acted very effectively in securing the punctual attendance of the great majority of the children.

III. The Night Schools.

Instruction—Regulations.—These are attended by elder girls and lads. They are open on two or three evenings in the week. In London there are 217, with about an average attendance of

10,000 pupils. The course of instruction is similar to, or identical with, that pursued in the Day Schools, though the number of pupils at each meeting is usually smaller, and in some cases it is not sufficient to allow of the formation of regular classes. During the summer months, when the evenings are long and warm, the attendance falls off considerably, and some classes close altogether. In the winter, many children come in for the sake of the warm fire and the comfort of the room. Pupils attending the Day Schools are not as a rule allowed to be present in the evening, though this regulation is not always very strictly enforced, as it is not wished to discourage those who are really anxious to learn.

IV. The Industrial Classes.

Subjects of Instruction—Banks.—These are generally held in the evening, and in the majority of cases, that is, in London, in 130 Schools out of 143 the pupils are limited to girls. The instruction includes needlework of all kinds, and is usually conducted by voluntary Teachers. The articles made consist of warm underclothing and such-like things. They are often placed in store, and are purchasable by the workers at, or sometimes even below, the cost of the materials. As an encouragement for children to save their money, and procure some serviceable clothes, a Bank is established at many schools, into which small sums may be deposited weekly. The Bank is open twice a year, when the amounts are returned with interest, sometimes at the rate of a penny in the shilling. On these occasions the stores of clothes are exhibited, and the purchases are usually made on the same evening.

Prizes to those who have Left School.—A system of giving Prizes to children who have attended Ragged Schools, and have left for various occupations, appears to have worked with success. These are awarded to those who remain in their situations for twelve months at least, and have good characters. The results show that—

494	held their situations	from 1 to 2 years.
210	„	2 3 „
125	„	3 4 „
50	„	4 5 „
21	„	5 years and upwards.

Considering the class of boys and girls who are included in this list, these statistics are highly satisfactory.

Teaching Staff—Voluntary and Paid—Monitors.—The staff at Ragged Schools is composed of three classes, namely, Voluntary Teachers, Paid Teachers, and Paid Monitors. The first class is by far the most numerous. In London alone about 3,200 were engaged during the year 1869, and of these nearly 2,200, on an average, attended at the different Schools on Sunday. The Paid Teacher is usually the person upon whom the success of the School mainly depends. In many cases he and his wife reside on or near the premises. The two together not only manage the School, but also keep the Penny Bank, and conduct the clubs, &c., which are attached usually to each Ragged School, devoting their whole time to the work. The Paid Monitors are very frequently children who have been at the School, and who show promise and an aptitude for teaching. Occasionally, through some physical defect, they are unable to earn a living by ordinary labour, and, if they possess the necessary qualifications, make good assistants. Having risen from the same class as their pupils, if they are not too harsh and despotic, they are often very successful in managing the rough children who enter the Schools, whose disposition they understand, and whose feelings they can appreciate better than any one else. The Penny Banks and Clothing Clubs do much to instil frugal habits into the children. At Christmas 1869, no less a sum than 1,136*l.* was in the hands of the bankers from the first fund, and 1,269*l.* from the second.

Dinners—Doubtful Policy.—As an inducement to very poor children to attend these Schools, a certain number of times a week a dinner is often provided, particularly in the winter. In some places this is given away gratuitously, in others a small fee of one halfpenny is charged for the meal. The arguments both for and against this plan are numerous. There can be no doubt but that many are induced to come for the sake of the food, which can be had on such easy terms. It is, however, questionable whether those who attend solely with this object in view derive any practical benefit from the instruction offered, or whether a large number, whose parents are well able to provide for them, are not attracted from other schools in order to obtain this advantage. As a rule, it is found that the offer of bribes, such as food, clothes, &c., indirectly does far more harm

than the good which such assistance might effect, could it be applied in the right manner, and to those only who really need it.

Libraries.—Many Ragged Schools have Lending Libraries attached to them; ninety-five of these in London contain no fewer than 17,000 volumes. The rule which is usually adopted in issuing these books is, to allow any girl or boy who has been at school six weeks, and can be recommended for good conduct by the Teacher, to take home one volume at a time. Those who have books are expected to be unusually regular in their attendance at school. All books are to be returned weekly, but they may be re-borrowed. In cases of misconduct, the privilege of using the Library is withdrawn for a limited time.

Other Objects.—Several other agencies, varying in their character, but all having for their object the improvement of the lowest classes, are in connection with these Institutions.

1. *The Mothers' Meetings.*—These are usually held in the evenings, and, as their name implies, are attended by the mothers of the scholars. They sit and work, and while thus engaged some one reads aloud an interesting and useful book, or relates some entertaining history or anecdote.

2. *The Bands of Hope.*—For encouraging temperance.

3. *The Flower Shows.*—For giving the poor an interest in window and other gardening.

4. *The Shoeblack Brigade,* which deserves special consideration, from the intimate connection which it has with the school-work. It has been in existence just twenty years, and during that time has steadily increased its operations. The position of a shoeblack is given as a reward for good conduct in the schools. The boys are obliged to attend school certain hours of the week, and during the rest of the time ply their calling as shoeblacks and sweepers, regular stations being assigned to them. The best stations are reserved for the most deserving boys, who earn sometimes as much as 12*s.* or 15*s.* a week. In the whole London Brigade the average takings per boy are as nearly as possible 9*s.* per week, and the gross amount received by the Brigade since the commencement of the movement reaches no less a sum than 90,000*l.* Each shoeblack is designated by a badge and number, and is clothed in uniform. In some cases the members of the Brigade live together in a Home,

and contribute a fixed sum weekly for their lodgings, washing, and breakfast, which are provided by a Matron. This plan appears to have answered well at Brentford.

Difficulty to Keep to the Right Class.—The original object for which Ragged Schools were established, namely, to provide for the destitute children in our large towns, has been somewhat departed from, inasmuch as many are admitted to them who scarcely come under this description. The difficulty is to confine their operations to the really destitute. Moreover, it is scarcely possible to exclude a child, anxious to learn, because he happens to be of a somewhat higher grade than the rules of the school contemplate. The practical working shows that it is much easier to exclude all *below* than all *above* a certain grade. Besides, the interest of a good Teacher is to fill the school; and if he or she cannot get the very worst, which are not easily induced to come, it is almost natural to fill their vacant places with those who appear to wish to avail themselves of the opportunity. In this way the somewhat better class are pretty sure to creep in, particularly if food and other bribes are held out for their acceptance. The result of this relaxation of the original rule, as regards the class of children to be admitted, has been that parents who should be only too anxious to defray at least some portion of the cost of their children's education, are tempted to send them to the Ragged School, in order to save the pence which they would have to pay elsewhere. In the East-end of London this system is carried on to a great extent, and so demoralising is the effect on the poorer classes that not a few Educationalists visit all the bad consequences on the Ragged Schools, and condemn them altogether. This, however, should not be done, as without doubt they have in tens of thousands of instances performed a work which no other machinery at present in operation could have effected.

Advantages of Strictness to Secure Attendance.—The irregular attendance of the children, as already stated, is one of the chief hindrances to the efficient working of Ragged Schools. This is felt not only as arising from the repeated absence of the same pupil for days and weeks together, but from the want of punctuality on those days when he does attend. As is previously remarked, the enforcing of a certain amount of strictness of discipline is necessary, in order to induce in these rough natures a due conformity to regular rule. There can be no doubt that,

apart from the intellectual education, the inculcation of habits of order and attention to rule is perhaps even more important than any other branch of the school duty. Experience has also proved that this strictness, so far from reducing the number attending, considerably increases it. It would seem highly desirable that this should be carried out more generally than it is at present.

Effect of Act of 1870 on Ragged School Children.—The new regulations under the Education Act of 1870 will materially affect these Ragged Schools, or rather the class of children for which they are provided. It was for these very children, indeed, that the chief necessity arose for such a measure being drawn up. The most important part of its action will be, not so much to provide schools, though a large number will be required, as to enforce by some means the attendance of the pupils. When this is accomplished, and the so-called ragged children receive regularly the benefit of sound and useful instruction in those hours now devoted to idleness and mischief in the streets, the aspect of our large towns, and the Metropolis above all, will be vastly changed.

48. MECHANICS' INSTITUTION SCHOOLS

Object—Founder.—These Institutions were founded in order to afford the means of imparting instruction in the Arts and Sciences to the working-classes. Their early origin and history are intimately associated with the labours of Dr. Birkbeck, who was undoubtedly the originator of the scheme, and also the founder of the present Institution still flourishing in Chancery Lane. Dr. Birkbeck was a man of remarkable genius, and his talents were of so high an order, that on a vacancy occurring in the Professorship of Natural Philosophy at the Andersonian College, Glasgow, he was elected to that post, though he had only just reached his twenty-third year. This was at the commencement of the present century.

Causes which Gave Rise to the Idea.—The duties of his Professorship necessarily required him to be possessed of a large amount of scientific apparatus. This was a continual source of difficulty to him, as there was but one person in Glasgow who manufactured such articles. This man was either so full of work, or so dilatory in his business, that Dr. Birkbeck was often obliged to go to the different workmen, and himself explain the detail of each piece of apparatus he required to have made. He thus personally visited, almost from necessity, the smith at his forge, the glass-blower at his furnace, the carpenter at his bench, and other artisans in their turns. This gave him great opportunities of learning practically a great deal about the educational state of the skilled artisans, and he was struck with the remarkable ignorance which they displayed of scientific facts and principles bearing upon their work. He was at the same time astonished at the curiosity which they usually displayed, and the interest which they evinced in any little amount of instruction which he might incidentally impart to them in the course of

conversation. For these men to attend regularly at the College lectures was of course out of the question, though a few of the most intelligent were sometimes admitted to hear explained the uses of the apparatus which they had been partly instrumental in constructing.

The First Idea of the Scheme.—It was not long, however, before Dr. Birkbeck arranged something for their improvement. Twenty-three years later, in his address at the public meeting in London for promoting the foundation of the London Mechanics' Institution, he thus describes his own work :—'I beheld, through every disadvantage of circumstance and appearance, such strong indications of the existence of the unquenchable spirit, and such emanations from the heaven-lighted lamp in man, that the question was forced upon me, "Why are these minds left without the means of obtaining that knowledge which they so ardently desire, and why are the avenues to science barred against them because they are poor?" It was impossible not to determine that the obstacle should be removed, and I therefore resolved to offer them a gratuitous course of Elementary Philosophical Lectures.' This idea was really the germ from which eventually sprung Mechanics' Institutes.

First Lecture to Mechanics at Glasgow.—In the session 1800–1 Dr. Birkbeck issued his first proposal in Glasgow for attaching to the University a new class for the 'instruction of common mechanics.' He determined to give a series of Lectures upon the *Mechanical Properties of Solid and Fluid Bodies*, which were to be amply illustrated by experiments, and delivered with the greatest simplicity and familiarity of expression. They were to be applicable only to persons engaged in the practical exercise of the Mechanical Arts.

Objections—Successful Commencement.—Dr. Birkbeck was not over-sanguine of the success of this plan. Many, even of his friends, thought the scheme the dream of youthful enthusiasm, if not visionary and absurd. As was natural, every evil prediction was made, 'first, that the mechanics would not come, or that if they did come they would not listen, or if they listened they would not comprehend.' The result, however, of the experiment was more successful than the founder had anticipated. At the first lecture there were some seventy or eighty auditors; at the second nearly two hundred; almost all from the work-

shops of Glasgow; and before the course was over the regular attendance had amounted to about five hundred, which was as many as could be accommodated. This continued for three years, after which Dr. Birkbeck removed to London, and the scheme was carried on under his successor, with fair, if not with equally encouraging, results.

Lapse of Twenty Years.—It is not a little remarkable that, in spite of this commencement in Glasgow, the example was not followed in any town in Scotland or England for twenty-one years. This may perhaps be attributed to some extent to the general depression of the country during, and for some years after the close of, the Peninsular War.

Edinburgh School of Arts.—In 1821 Edinburgh followed the example of Glasgow, in establishing 'The School of Arts,' which was really a Mechanics' Institution in the original sense, though managed by a Committee of Subscribers, and not by the students themselves. The object of this School was, as stated in the first Report, to supply instruction 'in the various branches of Science which are of practical application to Mechanics in their several trades, so that they may the better comprehend the reason for each individual operation that passes through their hands, and have more certain rules to follow than the mere imitation of what they may have seen done by another. It is not intended to teach the trade of the carpenter, the mason, the dyer, or any other particular business, but there is no trade which does not depend more or less upon scientific principles, and to teach what these are, and to point out their practical application, will form the business of this establishment.'

Fees—Subjects of Instruction.—The fee charged was 15*s.* for the year, or 7*s.* 6*d.* the half-year, and 452 tickets were sold for the first session. The chief subjects in which instruction was given were Chemistry, Mechanics, Veterinary Art, Farriery, and Architecture. It was found that the knowledge of Mathematics was so deficient that but few were competent to profit by the Mechanical Lectures. An elementary course of Geometry and Mathematics was accordingly opened shortly afterwards, and proved of considerable benefit.

These Attempts the Forerunners of General Movement.—These attempts were the forerunners of the general movement towards

the formation of Mechanics' Institutions, throughout the country, which took place from the years 1824 to 1830.

The Suggestion in 'Mechanics' Magazine.'—The 'Mechanics' Magazine,' a journal which was commenced in 1823, for the exclusive interest of the working-classes, contained an article in its seventh number for October 11, 1823, headed, 'Institutions for Instruction of Mechanics. Proposal for a London Mechanics' Institute.' The article contained an account of Dr. Birkbeck's doings in Glasgow, and pointedly urged the formation of a London Mechanics' Institution, where Mechanics might meet in 'well-aired rooms, and endeavour to acquire a knowledge at a cheap rate of the Elements of Science.' This article met the eye of Dr. Birkbeck, who in the very next week's number of the Magazine expressed his willingness to assist in carrying out the proposal.

First Meeting in London.—On November 11, 1823, a meeting, attended by more than 2,000 mechanics, and presided over by Dr. Birkbeck, was held at the Crown and Anchor Tavern, Strand, to consider the subject. It was here resolved to establish Institutions for the instruction of mechanics in the arts they practise, as well as in other branches of knowledge; that such Institutions should be supported and managed by the mechanics themselves; that Lectures on the Arts and Sciences should be given; that Circulating and Reference Libraries should be in connection; and that Reading-rooms, Museums of Models, Schools of Design, Experimental Workshops and Laboratories, with the necessary instruments and apparatus, should be built.

Programme of Work.—The Lectures were to embrace Natural and Experimental Philosophy, Practical Mechanics, Astronomy, Chemistry, Literature, and the Arts; and, in addition to this, it was proposed at the second meeting to establish Elementary Schools for teaching Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry, and Trigonometry, and their different applications, particularly to Perspective, Architecture, Mensuration, and Navigation.

Spread throughout the Country.—Such was the scheme on which the London Mechanics' Institution was based; and in the course of a few years a number of similar Institutions gradually sprung up, those of Manchester, Leeds, Aberdeen, and the Potteries being among the first. Their whole object, except, perhaps, as regards the Reading-room, it should be remarked,

was education; and even in the so-called Elementary Schools this was to be of a somewhat advanced character. The first regular Course of Lectures was given at the London Institution by Professor Millington, on the Elementary Principles of Mechanical Philosophy, and was attended by some eight or nine hundred of its members.

Energy of Members in London.—The deficiency of the education of so many rendered the Elementary Schools highly important; and so energetic was the movement that additional classes were frequently held at private houses, members of the London Mechanics' Institution agreeing to receive a few of their more ignorant brethren and instruct them on certain evenings of the week.

Discussion on Name.—At the commencement there seems to have been some discussion as to whether these new buildings should be called 'Schools of Arts,' after the Edinburgh Institution, or 'Mechanics' Institutions,' the name by which that established in London was known. The latter term was almost universally adopted in England; that in Liverpool being the exception, though it is now called the Mechanics' Institute. It was thought that the former appellation seemed to imply that mere Science, in its true and original sense, was not 'a fit mental food for the whole people.'

Result of Institutions at first.—During the period from 1824 to 1830, when a rage existed for establishing these Mechanics' Institutions, they appear to have kept fairly to their original intention. Many thought that the one in London was falling into the hands of a committee of persons above the rank of artisan, and consequently departing from the principle that the mechanics themselves should manage it; and this no doubt was the case. It perhaps led to the more serious objection which was raised by the Editor of the 'Mechanics' Magazine,' in the number of that journal for December 11, 1824. After giving an account of the first annual meeting at Chancery Lane, he asserted that with 750 members it was not true to state that the mechanics of the Metropolis had given it their 'cordial co-operation, nor that it had stricken its roots deeply among them.'

Work of an Educational Character.—The course of teaching continued to be efficient in 1827; Lectures on Combustion, Metals, Pneumatics, Physics, British Remains and Antiquities, Geography, and Anatomy were given, and in spite of the many

objections to the system of management, the work of the Institutions all over the country was of a sound educational character.

First Seeds of Decay.—The desire of obtaining large and handsome premises, before the funds were in hand to pay for their erection, seems to have been the commencement of the failure of Mechanics' Institutions. To gratify this ambition, nine-tenths of the buildings were heavily mortgaged, and the consequent annual payment of interest became such a serious incubus of debt as to cripple the action of the Institutions. The seeds of decay and premature dissolution were thus early sown, even before many promising Institutions had been in existence a couple of years. The Editor of the 'Mechanics' Magazine,' as early as 1824, when the scheme was barely in complete working order, foreseeing the evil which was likely to arise, protested against it, and endeavoured in every way to arrest its growth.

Debt on Chancery Lane Institution.—The debt of this last-named Institution in 1825 was no less than 3,700*l.*, contracted with the object of building the Lecture-room, and purchasing and altering the premises in Chancery Lane. The money was advanced by Dr. Birkbeck from time to time until the completion of the premises. Many thought that this would place the management too much in that gentleman's hands; but if this were so, there was no doubt but that no other person had the welfare of the Institution more at heart. His generosity easily induced him to forego the interest of his money; but this could not fail to be detrimental to ultimate success, by placing a permanent Institution, which should have been essentially self-supporting, in the false position of reliance on the disinterested benevolence of one man. To this day there remains a debt upon the Institution of nearly 3,000*l.*, though energetic and successful efforts are now being made to pay it off.

Financial Difficulties and Consequences.—In most of the provincial towns, however, large sums had been similarly advanced by persons in the ordinary way of business, who naturally required the prompt payment of their claims for interest. To meet this annual charge, the funds of the Institutions had to be administered with such stringent economy as to frustrate the original design for which they were established. At times all efforts to make both ends meet were unavailing, and accumulated annual deficiencies added to swell the capital of the debt.

It was consequently found necessary to alter the programme as regards lectures, to reduce the payments for the Science lectures, to curtail their number, and to depend on gratuitous assistance. It was also thought desirable in 1827 to raise the subscriptions for members in London to 24*s.* a year, instead of 20*s.*, and to exact an entrance fee of 2*s.* 6*d.*, which was felt at the time to be very oppressive. This led for a time to a reduction in the number of the members, as well as a falling off in the amount of gross receipts. The entrance fee has since been abolished, and the annual payment lowered to 18*s.*, which is further reduced to 15*s.* after two years' consecutive membership.

Institutions Dependent on Subscribers — Consequence.—These alterations made the Societies dependent more than ever on honorary subscribers, who were not of the class for whose benefit the Institutions were first contemplated. When the feeling was strongly in favour of these Institutions, and when many private individuals subscribed because it was a sort of fashion to do so, few looked for any return for their money beyond the bare privilege of admission to lectures, &c. As the interest drooped, these persons began to think it was useless remaining as subscribers where they received little or no benefit. In order, therefore, to prevent their leaving, and to entice others to join, it became necessary for the managers to hold out various inducements quite apart from the original scheme.

Amusement—Advanced Education given up.—This naturally led to a complete change in the class of members, as well as in that of the managers, few of whom were mechanics having other interests and ideas. Persons joined more for the purpose of reading newspapers than for scientific instruction. Concerts, entertainments, and other popular amusements, all no doubt good in themselves, eventually took the place of scientific instruction, and instead of these Institutions remaining educational, with an occasional entertainment by way of healthy recreation, they rapidly declined into places of miscellaneous amusement, which the custom of building large halls or lecture-rooms tended still more to encourage. The letting out of the large room, for almost any object, became indeed the only way of squaring the annual balance-sheet, and how to do this to the best advantage necessarily formed the main object of the

Managers, so as to prevent the collapse of the whole undertaking. To this cause is principally attributable the want of success of these Mechanics' Institutions. Scientific education, pure and simple, almost ceased, and was at best superseded only by an occasional popular lecture. The Elementary Schools for Adults in many cases, however, continued to work, and were the sole remnant of the Educational scheme. They effected considerable good, although they confined their teaching almost entirely to primary subjects, and but seldom reached the somewhat lofty programme at first laid down for them by the founders of the Mechanics' Institutions. These Elementary Schools, and the establishment of Lending Libraries, which nearly always formed a part of every Institution, have undoubtedly had a considerable influence on the Educational state of the country.

Itinerant Lectures.—In 1839, at the suggestion of Lord Brougham, as Chairman of a Committee of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, an effort was made to arrange a system of itinerant lectures. It was proposed that one of these lecturers should visit all the Institutions in a certain district, giving lectures at each. Thus one set of apparatus, or one set of specimens of Natural History, would be sufficient for purposes of illustration for many towns. The plan, however, does not seem to have worked as satisfactorily as was desired, owing probably to the fact that the education of the majority was too deficient to induce them to care for, or enable them duly to appreciate, lectures of a strictly scientific character.

Condition in 1841.—In 1841 there were 216 Mechanics' Institutions in Great Britain, with 25,651 members, giving an average of 119 members to each. Of these, it was computed that at least three-fifths were Masters, Tradesmen, Shopkeepers, Clerks, &c. It was evident, therefore, that the scheme had completely failed in carrying out the original object for which it was intended, as far as the artisans themselves were concerned.

Present Condition Improving.—The present state of 'Mechanics' Institutions,' 'Literary and Scientific Institutions,' and 'Working Men's Clubs,' all of which are different names of schemes for one and the same object, is perhaps somewhat more satisfactory than formerly, though there is much room for improvement. During the last few years, many of them have, to a certain extent, resumed the plan of scientific teaching; and with a view to its being carried out with greater efficiency, grants from the Science and Art Department, as explained in another chapter, are now

TEACHING THE DUMB TO SPEAK

made, on the results of teaching artisans and those of the very class in life for whose benefit the original scheme of Mechanics' Institutions was at first framed. This system of instruction, which may be taken advantage of by any Institution having a qualified Teacher, seems likely to be of a more beneficial character than that formerly pursued, inasmuch as annual examinations are held by the Government, and the teaching is more systematic, and in every respect better adapted to the working classes. The London Institution has now 1,200 members.

Revival of First Idea.—The parent Institution at Chancery Lane has now a large number of classes in the following subjects, viz. :—

Geometrical Drawing.	Perspective.
Machine Drawing.	Physical Geography.
Building Construction.	Chemistry.
Mathematics.	Botany.
Mechanics.	Freehand Drawing.
Experimental Physics.	Model Drawing.
Animal Physiology.	French.
Geology.	German.
Zoology.	Italian, &c., &c.

In addition to this there is a regular Evening School, in which instruction is given in nearly all the elementary branches of knowledge. In Manchester, Leeds, Birmingham, and other towns there are similar schools; and it is probable that the general feeling which has been aroused during the last few years in favour of education of an advanced character, may to a great extent be the cause of this revival in the Mechanics' Institutions. There can be little doubt but that had the original scheme been duly carried out, the education of the mechanic would have been vastly superior to what it now is.

Conclusion.—It may be that the state of the country from 1820 to 1830 was not such as to permit the efficient development of Dr. Birkbeck's plans, but the improvements during the last thirty or forty years have materially changed the aspect of the working-classes, and immensely improved their elementary education. Were the operatives themselves, now that they have these advantages, to place all existing Mechanics' Institutions on the basis on which they were originally founded, and to take up the matter with the energy formerly displayed, the inferiority of the education of this country, as compared with that of other nations, would not long be a matter of every-day remark.

49. DAME SCHOOLS.

Early Origin.—The Dame School may be said to have been the pioneer of, and to have led to the introduction of, the more modern Infant School, though it is to be regretted that the latter has not yet by any means superseded the former. The urgent necessity for a large number of the poorer classes finding some means of safely depositing their children during a great part of the day while they themselves were engaged at work, no doubt led to the establishment of these places of instruction, if indeed they can be dignified by such a name. Their origin, therefore, must be almost as remote as the employment of women in industrial occupations; and although as a rule higher fees are charged at a Dame School than at a first-class Infant School, giving vastly superior instruction, yet at the present day they hold their own against what might be termed 'modern innovations.'

Attainments of Dames.—A Dame School is usually conducted by an elderly woman, who, either from age, misfortune, or other cause, is not able to earn a livelihood by an ordinary occupation, but takes charge of the children of her neighbours during the day for a small weekly consideration. It is hardly necessary to say that the qualification for teaching does not in any way enter into the consideration of the individual conducting such a school, many being able to do little more than put their alphabet together, and spell the simplest syllables.

Fees Charged usually High — Statistics.—The weekly fees charged at these 'establishments' are often considerable, and vary between twopence as a minimum and sixpence as a maximum. As early as 1823, Dr. Pole, writing on the subject of education, states that fourpence a week is by no means an uncommon payment at the Dame Schools, both in London and

in country towns; less than threepence is scarcely ever paid, and sometimes as much as sixpence is charged. From the Report of the Parliamentary inquiry in 1819, it appears that at that period there were in England no fewer than 3,102 Dame Schools, with 53,624 very young children under instruction.

Past and Present Condition.—The state of these Schools some fifty years ago, when Dr. Pole wrote, does not appear to have been encouraging. He considered that if the pupils learned little of Reading they received still less moral instruction, as the Dames had no idea that children could be trained to anything but a knowledge of the A B C; and 'as to improving the temper, such a course of discipline would probably be laughed at by both parents and schoolmistress.' One worthy Mistress of a provincial Dame School, about forty years ago, on being asked the number of her scholars, replied, 'It is unlucky to count them. It would be a flat flying in the face of Providence. No, no, you shan't catch me counting. See what a pretty mess David made of it when he counted the children of Israel.' At the present day it is to be feared they are little better, except perhaps that their moral teaching may be somewhat improved. The Rev. James Fraser, in his Report as an Assistant-Commissioner of the Education Commission, considers that the majority of those he is acquainted with are kept by most respectable persons in point of character.

Mr. Winter's Description.—The working of a Dame School is thus described by Mr. Assistant-Commissioner Winter:—'The usual scene of these schools is a cottage kitchen, in which the Mistress divides her time between the pupils and her domestic duties. The children sit round the room, often so thickly stowed as to occupy every available corner, and spend the greater part of their time in knitting and sewing. At intervals the Mistress calls them up, one or two at a time, and teaches the alphabet and easy words, the highest proficiency attained being the power of reading a little in the New Testament.'

Description of Premises.—The Dames usually live in one room, which serves every purpose, and Mr. Winter continues:—'Scholars may often be seen sitting round the sides of a four-post bed, on low forms, the sides of the bed forming a back to the seat, sometimes on the sides of the bed. When the children are present, the atmosphere is always oppressive to me; and often,

if I stay in it for ten minutes without opening the window, it makes me sick.'

Instances of Accommodation.—The rooms are usually so small, Mr. Cumin remarked during his inquiry, that they rarely enable the children to stand round the teacher in a semicircle: and he described them as so densely packed that the children were as close as birds in a nest, and tumbled over each other like puppies in a kennel. Perhaps the most remarkable instance is in the school visited by Mr. Foster. He saw at dinner, in the midst of the children who were then 'under instruction, a collier (the Mistress's husband) and two lodgers, fresh from the pit, who after the meal would in all probability proceed to undress, and wash themselves, in the same place.'

Popular with the Poor—Genteel.—In spite of the evident inefficiency of these schools, they are undoubtedly popular with the poorer classes, and chiefly because they are kept by persons in their own station in life, and over whom they seem to exercise a certain amount of control. Another reason why many patronise them is that, being styled 'Private Seminaries,' a strong opinion appears to be prevalent that they are 'more genteel' than the National, or public Infant School. In the East-end of London this is particularly the case; the private Day Schools, which are really nothing more than Dame Schools, are looked upon often as far above the National or British School; and the children of the somewhat better class are, accordingly, frequently placed at the former, in preference to the latter.

Anecdote of Practical Working.—Mr. Fraser, in his Report as one of the Assistant-Commissioners to inquire into the state of popular education in England, gives the following curious instance of the working and use of Dame Schools in 1860. He says:—'I met with a case to-day, illustrating the use of Dame Schools. In a block of cottages—six or eight in number—attached to a farm, a mile from the Parochial School, I heard that a certain Mrs. —— kept a school. Approaching the cottages, which lie at some little distance from the road, I found eight or ten of the wildest-looking urchins playing about the heap of faggots that lay before the cottage doors, in every state of dirt and tatters, their mothers meanwhile, each at her door, staring at the stranger, "gloving" away at the same time. Having found Mrs. ——, I inquired about her school. With tears in her eyes, she told me

she had given it up when the new Parish School was opened. The squire's lady had used to give her 3*s.* 6*d.* a week for teaching these outlying children, but discontinued it now. "She could not sleep at night for thinking of it," and her eyes were so weak she could not "glove" like her neighbours. "But why not keep school again? there were ten or a dozen children outside, who would be all the better for being looked after." "Oh, the parents could not pay. There was a dairyman who wished her to take his two children, but the others were too poor." "Well, begin with the dairyman's; others will soon come; the parents will find it cheaper to pay you twopence a week to look after their children, than to let them run about, as they are doing now, tearing their frocks and wearing holes in their shoes. I'll go out and ask some of them." The first neighbour at once assented to my view of the comparative cheapness of schooling and idling, and said she would gladly pay for her children if Mrs. —— would take them. With this little morsel of comfort I returned to the old lady, and I have some hope that she got her usual allowance of sleep that night, and that the next Monday morning she started her school once more, where, if the children won't learn much, they will at least be kept out of mischief, and the thousand ill consequences that flow from untended ways.'

Suspiciousness of Dames.—The spread of good Infant Schools, which it is to be hoped will in time almost do away with these inferior places of instruction, has not yet done much in reducing the number of children under the care of Dames. No reliable statistics have of late years been compiled, and it is extremely difficult to collect definite information on the subject. Many of the Dames are suspicious of their doings being investigated, nor will they usually allow a stranger much opportunity of inquiring minutely into the working of their system, if indeed they have any.

Difficulties of getting rid of these Schools.—There can be no question but that the amount paid by the parents of these children for the miserable teaching which they receive would be sufficient to enable excellent Infant Schools, on a proper basis, to be carried on almost independently of a Government Grant. Two difficulties, however, present themselves; namely, the scarcity of Teachers competent to train the young, and the natural opposition of the Dames themselves to any alteration by which their craft would be in danger of being destroyed. Owing to the energetic efforts made during the last thirty years

by the Home and Colonial School Society, a large number of excellent Infant Teachers have been trained.

Amount of Instruction.—The amount of instruction at the present time given in these Dame Schools is very limited. From the information gathered by the Duke of Newcastle's Commission, it appears that Reading and Sewing are almost the only employments of the children. Writing in some few cases is included; but at Bradford 50 out of 147, or 34 per cent., and at Rochdale 16 per cent., of these schools do not teach Writing, even in the most elementary form.

Large Number of these Schools.—The number of these schools at the present day is far greater than is usually supposed. They must not, however, be confused with the 'Private Adventure Schools,' which correspond more with the Elementary Boys' and Girls' Schools under the Committee of Council. There is scarcely an alley or court in the crowded districts of London and the larger towns in which a Dame may not be found with her Infant School. Some of a more pretentious character have a card placed in the window, and some are styled 'Seminaries,' and have a brass plate on the door. By far the larger number have scarcely accommodation for more than half-a-dozen or a dozen children, though often receiving twice that number. Nor, indeed, is it only in the towns that these places are to be met with; they abound also in villages, and have, it must be owned to their credit, at times unwillingly perhaps, led to the formation of better schools.

Existing Condition of Dame Schools—Dr. Hodgson.—The following extract from Dr. Hodgson's Report as an Assistant Commissioner to the Duke of Newcastle's Commission in 1859 gives a fair idea of the existing condition of these schools. He says, 'In the Appendix [that is, the Appendix which is added to his Report] will be found notes sufficient, I think, to justify the assertion that none are too old, too poor, too ignorant, too feeble, too sickly, too unqualified in any or every way to regard themselves, and to be regarded by others, as unfit for school-keeping. Nay, there are few, if any, occupations regarded as incompatible with school-keeping, if not as simultaneous, at least as preparatory, employments. Domestic servants out of place; discharged barmaids; vendors of toys or lollipops; keepers of small eating-houses, of mangles, or of small lodging-houses;

needlewomen, who take in plain or slop work; milliners; consumptive patients in an advanced stage; cripples almost bedridden; persons of at least doubtful temperance; outdoor paupers; men and women of seventy and even eighty years of age; persons who spell badly (mostly women, I grieve to say), who can scarcely write, and who cannot cipher at all. One young woman in her return writes, "*grammer and catachism;*" another spells writing, "*wrighting;*" a third, females, "*feameals.*" Unfortunately, bad spelling is not peculiar to the Teachers of Private Schools. One teacher of a public (uninspected) Girls' School spells chapel "*chapple.*" The following letter, addressed to me, is copied literatim:—

"3rd March 1859.

"Sir, I regret that I am not able to attend to all the rules lade down in thee in closed, as my school is of to numbel a cast to meat eyes (of thee publick gaze) at thee same time Sir, I shal be moust appay to refur you to my Children's Parents, as kindly favord me with thir children for some Years any further information that you require Sir, I shall bee moust appey to give Pardone defects

"I remain Your most Numbel Servant

"ELLEN D."

Such are some of the Teachers, not in remote rural districts, but in the heart of London, the Capital of the World, as it is said to be, whose schools go to make up two-thirds of English schools, and whose pupils swell the muster-roll that some statistical philanthropists rejoice to contemplate, and to inscribe with the cheering figures 1 in 8.'

Practical case of an Existing School.—The sketch at page 500 will enable the reader to form some idea of one of these schools, if schools they can be called. The drawing was taken on the spot after some little diplomacy, and, although perhaps too picturesque, is a fair representation of one of the thousands of Dame Schools at the present moment at work in London. This individual one has been conducted by the same Dame, in the same cellar, almost in the heart of London, for thirty-six years. Twenty to thirty children have been constantly in attendance, paying 3*d.* a week. The ages vary from two to eight years—the majority leave at six. Writing and Arithmetic is not attempted; in fact the Dame owned to the writer of these pages that she was not a scholar, as she was sixty-five years old, and

had been brought up in the country, where schools were scarce in her time. She stated that she 'prepared for advanced schools,' but limited her preparation to reading words and texts, though it was doubtful if any of her pupils ever got even as far as this. She objected to teaching with pictures, as the little children 'would look at them,' and consequently she preferred a string of dry sentences which, judging from appearances, the 'children wouldn't look at.'

This Specimen not the Worst.—The Dame, though of course completely unfit to teach, appeared to be a worthy old lady. She was very proud of stating that many of the parents of her present pupils had been brought up by her in the same premises. Her school is certainly not by any means the worst in London. In size it is about 70 superficial feet, and in height 6 feet 1 inch. It is somewhat above the average, as it will be remarked that the kitchen does not serve as a bedroom, but, besides acting for culinary purposes, is confined to the uses of parlour, schoolroom, and washhouse, the proprietor having a separate sleeping apartment upstairs. Within a hundred yards, in the same street, is another school of a like description, though rather larger, dirtier, and deeper underground.

Country Dames no better.—The country Dames are not superior to the Londoners. An illustration might have been given of one conducted by a worthy woman who had served for years in the capacity of housemaid at the chief house in the village, and had finally married the gardener. Finding expenses increase with a family, she commenced a Dame School in the premises partly occupied by a sweet-shop and post-office, which this enterprising couple had already established. This has been for a long time, and is at this moment, the only school in the village.

Parents must have their Children taken care of.—The extreme necessity of infants being taken charge of during the day arises from the present habits and employments of the working-classes, and the multiplicity of Dame Schools tends to prove that there exists among the poorer population a want which is capable of being turned to their immense advantage. The very children who are now known to be growing up in ignorance must, from the very nature of their parents' habits and modes of life, have gone to some Dame School for several years; yet in

efficient Infant Schools it has been shown, in a previous chapter, that by the age of seven most children may be taught without difficulty to read and write, and understand something of the elements of Arithmetic. The conclusion, therefore, to be deduced is, that this obvious necessity of the poor should be taken advantage of by providing such Infant Schools in all parts of the country, and by encouraging parents to send their offspring to them. Instead of children being allowed to waste their early years in the unhealthy kitchen of a Dame's Nursery, almost every one would by the age of seven have received an important amount of instruction without any sacrifice on the part of its parents. Were this accomplished, it would be a great step towards removing the present deplorable state of ignorance among the lower classes of society in this country.

50. PRIVATE ADVENTURE SCHOOLS.

Description of Class.—Under this title are comprised those schools which are carried on exclusively by private individuals for their own pecuniary benefit. Many schools which really belong to, and are largely supported by, private persons are inspected by the Education Department if they fulfil the conditions laid down by the Committee of Council. These are consequently not included under this heading.

Any Person may now Teach—Not so Once.—The right of opening a school for profit or otherwise, for the education of children, whether of the upper, middle, or lower classes, is one which is at present free to all, and is exercised by persons irrespective of their qualifications or opinions, the law of supply and demand alone regulating the number which are called into existence. This, however, was not always the case. Up to a comparatively recent date, no one was allowed to open a school, or even to teach in private, without the licence and authority of the Bishop of the diocese. To obtain this licence, according to the 13 & 14 Car. ii. c. 4, the applicant had to subscribe to a declaration of faith, in accordance with the doctrines of the Church of England, and to pay a fee of 12*d.* Teaching without this permission, or after it had been withdrawn, was punishable with heavy fine or imprisonment. The object of this restriction does not seem to have been to secure proficient teachers, but to prevent the spread of any religious doctrines other than those of the Established Church. In consequence of the widespread views entertained on the subject of religious equality, a great change has taken place, and any one is now at liberty to open a school, and to instruct those who may attend, in whatever subject and in whatever manner he may think proper.

Large Number of Schools—Statistics.—The result has been

that the growth of Private Schools for the children of the working classes during the last half-century has been very great. They stand in the same relative position to the regular Inspected Schools that the Dame Schools do to the systematic Infant Schools. At the present time, some thousands are to be found, in all parts of the country; and although the average attendance in them is generally smaller, yet it is probable that the Schools themselves are even more numerous than those under inspection. In 1861 the Duke of Newcastle's Commission ascertained that in these Private Schools, all of which are independent of State aid, there were no fewer than 573,536 scholars.

Popularity.—Like the Dame Schools, Private Schools for the working-classes are remarkably popular, parents thinking that they are more *genteel*, and consequently superior, to the Public Schools. Children are frequently taken from an excellent National or British School, and placed for a 'finish' under the training of some private teacher, who often has no qualifications whatever for such a task as that of giving advanced instruction.

Effect of Competition of State Aid.—In spite of the competition which must have existed since the creation of the Education Department between State-aided and Private Schools, the latter do not appear to have diminished as rapidly as might have been expected. In 1851, five years after the commencement of annual aid by the State, it was calculated that about 35 per cent. of the children of the labouring-classes were at such places of instruction. In 1859, this proportion had but decreased to 33·9 per cent., and in many localities an absolute increase had taken place.

Fees—Usually High.—The fees charged at these Private Adventure Schools are their only means of support, and their existence in such large numbers is abundant proof that a fair living may be made out of the instruction of the poorest children, even without State aid. The average fees are somewhat higher than at the Public Schools. About 68 per cent. of the schools charge from *2d.* to *6d.* per week each child; about 16 per cent. charge from *7d.* to *1s.*; and the remainder from a shilling per week up to a guinea a quarter.

Qualifications of Teachers.—The qualifications possessed by the Teachers of the Private Schools are very various. Those of some are superior, but in the majority of instances they are inferior to

those trained and qualified under the Education Department. As a rule, they are highly respectable persons, whether Masters or Mistresses. In the East-end of London, where these Private Schools exist in larger numbers than the Public Schools, the staff of teachers is almost all that could be desired, as regards their conduct and respectability, but very few have been efficiently trained so as to be qualified for teaching. The description given by Mr. Fraser is very true; in most cases, they 'have no special fitness, or at least no fitness that is the fruit of preparation or training for their work, but have taken up the occupation in default of, or after the failure of, other trades . . . . most of them have picked up their knowledge promiscuously; several combine the trade of school-keeping with another.' Mr. Hare remarks:—'The general testimony goes to show that most private Schoolmasters are men who have failed in other pursuits, and that many of them eke out a subsistence by doing whatever odd jobs chance may throw in their way. One witness specifies quondam Barbers, Sailors, Soldiers, and Millers as turning to school-keeping, and present Schoolmasters as being also interested in ship-owning or engaged in rate-collecting. . . . I became acquainted with one whose general intelligence enabled him, not only to keep a Day and Evening School, but also to cater for a country newspaper, to conduct the correspondence of persons who are "no scholars," and to make the wills of testators who are penny-wise and pound-foolish.'

London Private Schools very Deficient.—In London, perhaps, the class of Teachers is even worse than elsewhere. Women of seventy and upwards, men of intemperate habits, cripples, deformed persons, and others equally unqualified, not only start schools, but manage to induce a large number of parents to send their children to them. Their success may, to a certain extent, be attributed to the restless habits of the parents, who are continually removing their children from school to school. In every district where a new school is started, particularly if it is called a 'select' one, a number of parents who have sent their children to every place near will at once patronise it, if only for a week or two. In this way, the occupation of school-keeping is often taken up by a man or woman out of work, as a temporary means of earning a living, until something better turns up. The majority of such Private Schools are, in fact, of a very ephemeral character. Many, however, drag on an existence for a few years.

They rarely survive beyond the life of the original founder, except in those solitary cases where the school buildings have been erected as a private speculation.

Example by Mr. Wilkinson.—A remarkable specimen is given by Mr. Wilkinson of one of these schools, which shows very well their character:—'A poor cripple without legs from infancy was brought up at a National School. When about fourteen, possessing good ability and teaching power, he was retained as Monitor till eighteen, when he was dismissed for misconduct. He then opened a school on his own account, and got from twenty to thirty boys. This failed through his misconduct, and for some years he lived on alms, wheeling himself about the streets. Once more he tried a school through the help of friends, who thought he had improved in character. He then took two rooms in a small court close by a National School in high repute, under an excellent Certificated Master and an Assistant, and five Pupil Teachers, where the fee is 2*d.* a week, and 1*d.* extra for drawing; there are 150 boys, and there is room for 50 more. The Private School under the cripple is crowded to excess, the rooms being about 20 feet by 10 and 8 high; the children have scarcely room to sit; fees 3*d.* and 6*d.* Boys are sometimes taken from the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd classes of the National School to be *finished at this Private School.*'

Amount of Instruction.—The teaching at these schools is usually limited to Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic. A few of the more pretentious establishments have nominally an extended course of instruction, but on investigation it generally dwindles down to the three R's, and often to considerably less. There is, however, great difficulty in obtaining accurate information, since that derived from any Private School of the class under consideration must necessarily be of a perfectly voluntary character. When an inspector or official visitor asks any question, unwilling answers are frequently elicited, from a latent apprehension that injury to their occupation may be the result, owing to the possibility of Government interference.

Statistics in the East-end of London.—In an inquiry recently made in one square mile at the East-end of London, it appeared that out of 9,898 children between the ages of 3 and 12 there were 3,800 in these Private Schools, and 6,098 in the inspected ones. The number of the Private Schools far exceeded, how-

ever, the other class, there being 27 of the former to 19 of the latter in this limited area.

Monopoly by the State—Suggestions.—According to the Report of the Duke of Newcastle's Commission, great dissatisfaction is expressed by the Private Teachers, in consequence of the monopoly granted to Government Schools by the effect of the State aid, and there is no doubt but that this is felt at the present time. To obviate this injustice, the Commission reported in favour of a plan of providing the opportunity of an examination to all Private Teachers who had kept an Elementary School for three consecutive years, and who could produce satisfactory testimonials as to their moral character from Ministers or Magistrates who had known them during that period. Such a system—which, however, has not been carried out—might have got rid of any cause of complaint, and enabled those to obtain Government assistance who are really worthy of it.

The Teachers' Opinions on State Interference.—Many, it is thought, would be glad to submit to this test, as, according to Dr. Hodgson's Report, they bewail the number of ignorant private competitors which they find in every direction around them. It is not a little remarkable that the same authority states that these views are often expressed even by the most illiterate and inferior Private Teachers, their pretensions to being educated arising from their having in their early days just seen the inside of a Day School, during an attendance of a few weeks. One elderly woman informed Dr. Hodgson that 'Teachers ought to be made to pass an examination as surgeons does.' In fact, each one thought her neighbour an unlicensed interloper, and wished in some way to prevent the advent of each fresh intruder into an already over-occupied field.

Exceptions to Rule.—In reviewing the present aspect of Private Schools, it is evident that there are many important exceptions to be found to those described above. Several could be named which are by no means inferior to the best State-inspected school; at the same time, judging from the class as a whole, it is of the utmost importance that some action should be taken, either directly or indirectly, to prevent thoroughly unqualified persons from setting themselves up as teachers, and thus deluding parents into the belief that their children are being *educated*, when in point of fact they are virtually wasting the few

precious years available for the acquisition of the rudiments of knowledge.

All Teachers should be Required to Qualify.—With an improved system of education all over the country, a large number of these Private Schools, as at present constituted, will be given up; nevertheless, it is desirable, and almost essential, seeing the strong feeling which exists in their favour, that no one should be allowed to open even an Elementary School without possessing some qualifying licence. The remark of the Mistress that 'teachers ought to pass an examination as surgeons does' is perhaps after all not far from the truth. The quack is prohibited from plying his art even on willing patients, and the quack school teacher, though probably innocent of any intended fraud, should be prevented from inflicting an irreparable injury on the children consigned to his care, by wasting the few precious moments they have to devote to mental culture.

51 EVENING SCHOOLS.

Classes of Evening Schools.—These Schools are divided into three classes.

1st. Those in connection with Mechanics' and similar Institutions, which are more particularly described under the heading of 'Mechanics' Institution Schools,' and will consequently not be considered in this chapter.

2nd. Those under the superintendence of the Education Department, all of which are connected with Day Inspected Schools, and which are considered in the first portion of this volume.

3rd. Those carried on by private energy, either for profit or from motives of philanthropy.

This third category includes perhaps the most numerous class of Evening Schools, and is the one which is included among the Institutions unaided by the public funds.

History – First Schools.—Their origin and early history are not very clear. It appears that the first school started exclusively for adults, and held in the evening, was at Bala in Merionethshire, commenced in 1811 by the Rev. T. Charles. This was followed in 1812 by a similar school in Bristol, managed by Mr. William Smith and Mr. Stephen Prout. This afterwards led to the formation of the 'Bristol Institution for Instructing Adults to Read the Holy Scriptures,' though it appears that lessons in writing were also given. In 1816 a similar Society was started in London, which aided in the spread of such schools, and their number situated in the chief towns soon increased to thirty. The first Private Evening School proper for Boys and Girls who had been at work during the day, was opened at Bristol in 1806, by the 'Benevolent Evening Schools Society.'

Statistics in 1861.—In 1861, from the returns collected by the Duke of Newcastle's Commission, it was ascertained there were at that time 2,036 Evening Schools, having 54,571 male and 26,395 female scholars. Of these but 5,686 were in connection with the Education Department, leaving 48,885 pupils, who must have been attending Private Evening Schools. It may be that the great increase in the number under the Education Department since that time, and which has been referred to in a former chapter, has somewhat diminished the Private Unaided Schools.

Ages—Qualifications.—As a rule, these Schools are for Adults, or those over the age of 17 or 18, who feel their extreme ignorance and have an earnest desire to improve their condition. Their educational powers are of course very varied, and their rate of progress dissimilar, yet their attempting so earnestly to learn, in spite of serious drawbacks at such advanced ages, shows what great results may be obtained by judicious teaching.

Interest of Pupils—Anecdote.—The subjects taught are almost exclusively Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic, though Writing is usually the favourite. Those who attend regularly are often very energetic in their endeavours to get on. A striking story is told by Mr. Cumin, in his Report in 1861. He says, of a Private Evening School at Bristol: 'I had been conversing with the Master for some time, which of course prevented his attending to his business. Presently I heard a restless humming, and even symptoms of whistling. The Master said, "Do you understand that?" I said, "No." He replied, "You see these people come to work; they pay for coming here, and they don't mean to be curtailed of their rights." He instantly went off to attend to them, and everything was silent. I myself found it difficult to get them to converse. They had come to study, and they meant to study.'

Discouragement of very Ignorant.—Many pupils, however, only attend for a few nights, and get totally disheartened by the discovery of their own ignorance. In a flourishing Evening Class at the Parochial School, Shoreditch, out of 1,300 who have attended in 8 years, no fewer than 300 left before they received a week's instruction. This can hardly be wondered at. Young lads, and even girls, of 18 or 19, who up to that age have been taught nothing, find the drudgery of going through

the rudiments very great, and almost unbearable. With the good motive of desiring to acquire knowledge they are led to the school, and think they shall soon be able to read; but on finding their mistake, even if the Teacher have the power of putting information before them in an unusually attractive way, they frequently discontinue their attendance.

Fees.—In nearly every Evening School a fee is charged. This is generally a halfpenny or a penny for each lesson. The greater number of those schools carried on by private individuals are supported entirely by this means. In an efficient school, well managed, this appears to be a not unfruitful source of income, and judging from the number of schools which continue in operation, they must be fairly remunerative.

Schools under an Organising Master.—In several parts of the country, a system of Evening Schools under an organising Master has been established with great success; in Lancashire and Yorkshire perhaps most prominently. The duties of the organising Master are to visit the different places in connection with the parent Institution; to encourage the formation of new classes, and to hold examinations at stated periods. These classes are in no way aided by the Education Department, though the Duke of Newcastle's Commission in 1861 recommended that whenever an organising Master, approved by the Committee of Council, was employed for a group of schools, he should receive a sum in aid of his salary. The work effected by the Lancashire Union of Institutes is considerable. Many attend the classes who would be ashamed to go to a Boys' Evening School. In spite of the educational state of that part of the country being better than in most other places, the papers worked at the annual examinations under this Union show a lamentable state of ignorance of the very elements of Reading and Writing among those employed in and gaining excellent wages at the factories.

Evening School not too great a Strain.—An objection raised by many persons to Evening Schools is, that the instruction is too great a strain on the students who have been engaged all day at work. This may be no doubt true in some cases, as for instance in the East-end and other parts of London, where boys and girls from 12 to 16 years of age are often kept at work from 6 or 7 in the morning till 8 or 9 at night. As a rule, however,

where the occupation of the lad is over at 5 or 6 o'clock, and has consisted almost entirely of physical exertion, the change to mental work for two or three evenings in the week cannot be otherwise than beneficial, and is certainly more healthful than an additional amount of muscular exercise.

Want of Good Teachers.—The usual difficulty of obtaining good Teachers is one of the main causes of the slow development and extension of Evening Schools. The Education Department objects to Day School Teachers, with Pupil Teachers, having evening classes, as it is considered that their whole time should be taken up with their own work and with giving instruction to their Pupil Teachers in the evening. Private teachers, who attend to classes either for profit or from love of the work, are naturally of very varying qualifications. In some Evening Schools the education is little better than that imparted at a Dame School, while in others the teaching is fairly good. As a rule, these Private Teachers have the advantage of coming fresh to the evening work, which a National Schoolmaster, engaged all day in tuition, would not have, were he allowed to conduct the Evening Classes.

Disadvantages of mixing Men and Boys.—One drawback in Evening Schools is to be found in the unequal ages of the scholars. Some of the men who attend are as old as forty, while lads of fourteen or even less may sit beside them. In large towns this need not be the case, but it cannot be helped in villages. The elder members object to this mixture, as they themselves are usually more backward, and less quick of perception, than their juniors. They are consequently apt to be annoyed at any little exhibition of superiority or ridicule which may be displayed towards them by those of inferior age to themselves. From the evidence of Inspectors and others, it seems to be highly desirable that classes composed of elder persons should be kept separate from those consisting only of lads and children.

Religious Teaching.—The Evening Schools, both private and inspected, are often in connection with some religious denomination. Where they form part of a regular Day School, the religious teaching is necessarily in accordance with the tenets of that School. Where this is not the case, and in those Evening Schools carried on by private persons, they are not unfrequently

nominally attached to some religious community. The religious difficulty, however, does not exist in any case. Instruction is frequently given in religion, but not of such a character as to provoke opposition. The fact is, that the pupils largely supply the funds, and so maintain the School. They, therefore, practically settle the subjects for instruction; and if religious doctrine were to be taught in a party spirit, the probability is that the School would soon be deserted.

Industrial Evening School.—A very interesting Evening School, unaided by the State, is in operation in connection with the 'Albert Memorial and Industrial Institution,' Weston-super-mare. The distinctive feature is the workshop open every evening, where carving, turning, modelling, the uses of the steam-engine, &c. are taught. The room is fitted up with a variety of tools, lathes, a printing-press, models of steam-engines, &c. The object of the whole is to afford to the artisan class an opportunity of recreative industrial occupation, and to enable them to become handy in doing odd jobs for themselves. The idea is well supported, and fully answers the expectation of its founders.

Importance of Evening Schools—Future Working.—Regarding the present deficient state of education, and the early age at which children are sent to work, it would seem that the Evening School is the chief, if not the only way, of supplementing the education of the adult working-classes. When all children are sent to the Day School more regularly than they are at present, after having attended an efficient Infant School, they will be able to leave it with a proper amount of elementary knowledge, and the Evening School will probably then become an efficient means of improving their secondary education. The zeal of the students and their craving for knowledge, when they are once induced to attend school, even when they have to obtain it under difficulties from inefficient Instructors, shows that by a judicious system of Night Classes for Adults much may be done 'to compensate for the scantiness of the instruction given in Day Schools.'

52. BIRKBECK SCHOOLS.

Original Scheme—Where Situated.—The idea of increasing the knowledge of the principles which must be at the root of all Commercial and Industrial pursuits was one of the chief objects which led to the founding of Birkbeck Schools. They have been established almost entirely by the private liberality of Mr. William Ellis, and are at present in operation at the following places, viz. :—Southampton Buildings, Chancery Lane ; Peckham, Hackney, Gospel Oak Fields (Kentish Town), and Bethnal Green. Besides these there are schools in many parts of the country based on similar principles, though not bearing this special name.

Characteristics.—Birkbeck Schools are Institutions where not only an elementary education is given to children at a comparatively low cost, but where a higher and even an advanced training is obtainable. Their characteristics are, first, that they are totally unsectarian, no religious dogma of any description being inculcated ; and, secondly, that they do not receive any grants from the Education Department for elementary instruction. The chief feature, however, as above stated, which must be considered as peculiar to them, and in which at the time of their commencement they were quite unique, is the Instruction given in the elementary principles of Social and Political Economy.

Instruction in Social Economy.—Mr. Ellis had noticed for many years the great ignorance prevalent with regard to questions such as the Currency, Strikes, and Panics ; and it had induced him to write several valuable educational books on these and cognate subjects, giving, in simple and easy language, the true principles upon which they are based. He finally resolved to establish schools in which these subjects might be taught in a pleasing

and intelligent manner. This is fully described in the following extract from Mr. Knight's 'English Encyclopædia':—'Since his childhood, Mr. Ellis has seen our Currency, as at present established, assailed in every panic, from that of 1825 to that of 1848; and during the same period, there have passed under his scrutiny all the great Strikes by which workmen have been deluded into the hope of alleviating the sufferings incident to insufficient wages. These evils induced Mr. Ellis to make some attempt at removing them; and, further impelled, it may be, by the kindly feelings towards children which form a prominent feature in his character, he determined, if possible, to introduce into schools such instruction as should send boys into the world furnished with intelligent thoughts upon all the great questions relating to industrial life. With this view, he began, in 1846, a series of lessons to the elder boys of a British School, to which, for some years previously, he had been accustomed to render assistance; and, about the same time, he also gathered round him a group of Schoolmasters, with whom he went over the course of inquiry which will be found in his "Progressive Lessons;" and these Lessons will also furnish a good illustration of the mode of teaching adopted. The boys had no tasks to learn by rote, but the whole of the subjects brought before them, with the exception of things merely technical and arbitrary, were, so to speak, developed by the boys themselves, they being guided in their inquiries, of course, by the questions of the Teacher. Thus, these Lessons came to be something more than the mere teaching of dry academical political economy; they assumed, in fact, the character of moral lessons. For, thus taught, not only do children learn as a matter of fact about what is going on as the every-day work of industrial life, but they are continually invited to investigate what ought to be the rule of conduct of those who are engaged both in production and distribution. Not only, for example, would children learn the fact that the merchant does buy in the cheapest and sell in the dearest market, but the questions would come, "Ought he to buy in the cheapest market?" "Ought he to sell in the dearest market?" "Why? or why not?" And such questioning, as may easily be perceived, when managed by a competent Teacher, tends to a high order of mental and moral training. Having thus satisfied himself that Social Science may be made attractive to intelligent boys, and feeling certain that the habits of reflection and self-examination which its study calls forth cannot fail to impart a

useful bias to their character and conduct in after-life, Mr. Ellis proceeded to establish schools in which instruction in Social Science should be a leading feature.'

Origin of the Name of Birkbeck.—Such was the origin of these Schools, which were named after the founder of the Mechanics' Institutions. Considerable difficulty was for some time experienced in finding a special name to give them, as Mr. Ellis modestly objected to being publicly known in connection with them; and the reason which finally led to their being called after this eminent man was from the accidental circumstance that the first Birkbeck School, and the only one which was not absolutely established by Mr. Ellis, was commenced in part of the premises of the first Mechanics' Institution in Chancery Lane. This caused many narrow-minded persons to object to the Schools, on account of Dr. Birkbeck's religious opinions not agreeing with their own; and to this day not a few look with a degree of suspicion on the Schools, which is the more unjust, as, though they are strictly unsectarian, the moral tone of the children, particularly at Peckham, is by no means inferior to that met with in other places.

Desire of some of the Working Class for Instruction.—It may be stated, from observations made at Bethnal Green and other Districts, that several interesting examples have been adduced of the appreciation shown by comparatively poor parents of the value of an advanced education to their children. It frequently happens that great sacrifices are made to enable at least one of a family to have the benefit of a year or two at the Birkbeck School, which is regarded in the neighbourhood as one giving a sort of finishing education. If one of the boys in a family shows great promise, he is sent there after leaving the Elementary School. But generally the eldest son has the advantage, and in some cases this feeling of the rights of primogeniture is so strong, that the youngest children are sent to work earlier than they otherwise would be, in order to provide funds for continuing the studies of the first-born.

All Conducted much on Same Plan.—The following remarks, though relating chiefly to the Peckham establishment, apply in principle to the other Birkbeck Schools, which, as before stated, are all conducted much on the same plan.

When Commenced, &c.—The Institution at Peckham, situated

in a populous part of the south-east of London, was opened in 1852, under the management of Mr. Shields, who still conducts it. At its commencement it was on a somewhat smaller scale, but has increased from time to time, as the neighbourhood gradually appreciated the excellent education to be obtained in it; until, at the present time, about 600 children are daily under the instruction of fourteen Teachers. All the children are day scholars, the greater part residing in the neighbourhood of Peckham, though a large number come from Walworth, and a few from even a greater distance. About a quarter of the pupils are girls. Those over seven years of age have separate class-rooms and play-grounds, distinct for either sex.

Division of School.—The School is divided into three:

1. The Infant School, for boys and girls under seven years of age.
2. The Junior School.
3. The Upper School.

The difference between these last two divisions does not consist in the grade of advancement of the children, but is more of a social character, the payment being higher, and the children consequently belonging to parents of a superior position in life.

Reasons for Arrangements which are not the best.—This arrangement is not adopted because it is the best, as no doubt a system such as that at Faversham, with a Junior culminating into an Upper School, would be far better; but the social class-feeling among parents renders the adoption of this system at present impossible. At the same time, in both divisions, there is a considerable mixture of children, this mixture being greatest in the Upper School, and being accounted for from the fact that promising boys, who stay longer than usual, though perhaps of the artisan class, ultimately find their way out of the Junior division. One great disadvantage of this social feeling, which prevents parents, whatever their position or means, from sending their children to begin in the lowest class, and advance as they rise in learning, is that it duplicates the elementary instruction. Many of the children in the Upper School require the first lessons given to the lowest classes of the Junior School; and, as they thus cannot be made into one class, a considerable amount of teaching power and time is lost.

Fees.—The fees paid form a large part of the income of the School, though they are not quite sufficient to render it self-sup-

porting. In the Upper School they vary somewhat; but 12*s.* a quarter is the general charge; at Hackney, no less than 1*l.* per quarter is paid in some cases. In the Lower School, 6*d.* a week for those under eleven, and 1*s.* for those over that age, is the regular fee. This fee of 6*d.*, to some of the poorer pupils, is sometimes an occasion of irregularity. During seasons of short work, the schooling is the first thing stopped; and, in the winter, if sending the child to school necessitates the purchase of a pair of boots, this will too often be the cause of a break of some weeks in his or her attendance.

System of Teaching.—The system of teaching largely adopted is that of question and answer—a mode advocated by Mr. Ellis, and carried on in this School with remarkable success. Few books are used, and learning by rote is altogether abolished. The children are made familiar with the objects and facts which are being described to them; and in all cases, where possible, the black board becomes an important auxiliary to the teacher.

No Prizes given.—A peculiarity of the Institution is the entire absence of the usual stimulus given to pupils by prizes and rewards. Occasionally, a book may be given to a boy on leaving, as a private present, but there is no system of competition for prizes in the different classes.

Monitors—Collective Classes.—The highest boys in the school are formed into a Monitor's Class, and great care is taken to select only those who, by private character and habit, are good examples of conduct, as well as apt teachers. These Monitors, during certain hours, take each a few of the Lower Classes, and form what is called a Collective Class, somewhat on the old principle of Bell and Lancaster. Each small division of six or seven, under its Monitor, is gathered round a black board; and some problem in Arithmetic or other subject is worked at by all; the Monitor learning probably more than any by the repeated questions of his pupils. The Teacher is stationed at one end of the room, and can be appealed to in all cases of difficulty. In this way nearly all the Masters in the School have been trained.

Drill not much attended to.—Some attention is given to drill, both with the boys and girls; but, with the latter, not to any great extent; and the whole time of the pupils, about six hours a day, is devoted to mental study, no part of the school hours being given to Industrial training.

Mr. Shields Opposed to Half-time Instruction.—On the question of half-time instruction, the Head Master of this school, Mr. Shields, gave some important evidence before the Commission on Popular Education. He declared himself to be opposed to any plan of shortening the length of time the children were engaged at school. He stated, 'Not only would I not shorten the school time, but I have lengthened it, and with decided benefit to the School.' Nor does Mr. Shields consider that this amount of mental teaching is too much for the Instructor. He himself, though not enjoying good health, avowed that he could, and usually did, give six hours a day to the School, besides devoting two more to the private improvement of Monitors under his charge, without finding it too much. In considering the question of half-time, it is important to bear in mind the opinion of so great a practical authority as Mr. Shields. The questions of the Commissioners, however, somewhat point to the idea that in their minds such results can only be obtained from exceptional Teachers; and, unfortunately, the power of instructing children during such long hours cannot be reckoned upon in every school.

Subjects of Instruction.—The subjects of instruction embrace those usually given in Elementary Schools; and, in addition, in the Junior and Upper divisions, Geography, History, French, Drawing, Elementary and Practical Science.

Excellence of Writing.—The chief feature in the Infant School is the great stress laid on instructing the children in Printing. This is taught almost before Writing; and, judging from the excellent penmanship throughout the school, there can be no doubt but that the mode adopted is most successful in forming a clear, good hand. Another plan, which is carried on with the same object, is the method of requiring the children to copy sentences on large sheets of paper, which are needed from time to time to hang on the black-board for the use of the classes. These are done with a broad quill pen, in letters an inch or more in size; and the work is found to give freedom and neatness.

Arithmetic—Proficiency of Girls.—Arithmetic is really taught at this School; for it is, unfortunately, a fact that but few places exist where intelligent teaching of this subject is understood. The girls show an unusual aptitude and quickness for mathematical pursuits; so much so that it suggests that possibly the female deficiency of power in following mathematical facts and

reasonings may, to a great extent, be due to the imperfect manner in which they receive instruction in Elementary Arithmetic. Text books are here used but rarely, and then only for obtaining examples; the rules are practically explained in a common-sense manner, and each child's understanding of them is tested daily by numerous examples. By this means, learning by heart is impossible.

Elementary Science Instruction.—The amount of scientific instruction given to the children is considerable, and that, too, at an unusually early age. The youngest classes of the Junior and Upper School are taught the elementary principles of Animal Physiology and the laws of health. The mode of instruction in this is similar to that pursued in most other subjects, namely, by means of a conversational lecture, interspersed with frequent questions from both Teachers and pupils. In all cases the lessons are illustrated by experiments, and facts practically exemplified as much as possible. Thus, in explaining the nature of the skin and its uses, its physiological properties would be shown as bearing on the necessary requirements for keeping it in such a state as to enable it to perform its functions; from these its commercial uses would be touched upon, as in the manufacture of leather and glue, and experiments made showing the processes used in these arts.

Extent of Children's Knowledge in Science.—To both boys and girls this instruction is given; and it is probable that no school of a similar description in the kingdom is so far advanced that the highest girls' class can understand some of the facts concerning the Darwinian system of the development of peculiarities in animals; a subject which is not considered too abstruse to be taught in this Institution. This result is arrived at, not by the cram and showy system which so often grows out of public and competitive examination, but by a gradual course of agreeable instruction, enjoyed by the pupils, and likely to make a permanent impression on their minds.

Religious Doctrine excluded.—The schools are open to all children presenting themselves, who pay the fees, provided they conform to the rules and discipline. No religious doctrine is taught, and the parents of the children belong to almost every sect; the moral tone of the whole instruction being such as is rarely met with among so large and so miscellaneous a community.

Schools Examined by Science and Art Department.—The Birkbeck School at Bethnal Green takes advantage of the assistance of the Government grants for Science Teaching, though, like all other Birkbeck Schools, it is not under the inspection of the Education Department as regards Elementary Teaching. The one at Hackney has also done so to a small extent, but not of late years. The Institution at Peckham has never been examined by the Science and Art Department; though, from the teaching, there can be no doubt but that the pupils would be found equal to any of their age in the United Kingdom.

Conclusion—Difficulty to Obtain Teachers.—In concluding these remarks, and in drawing comparisons between one school and another, it is not difficult to see why that at Peckham is so eminently successful. It is from the fact that the children enjoy the services of a Head Master who makes them his study, and whose whole energy is exerted to render the training of the greatest possible benefit to the children under his charge. It is to be regretted that such excellent Institutions do not exist in all parts of London, and in our great provincial towns. The only obstacle, no doubt, is the difficulty of finding men competent and willing to undertake the duty, which is not often as remunerative as its importance would warrant. Experience shows that, wherever such schools are established, there is no lack of parents of the Industrial class willing, and indeed anxious, to pay a considerable fee for a sound, or even an advanced, education for their children.

TRAINING COLLEGES

IN CONNECTION WITH THE

COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL

ON

EDUCATION.

NATIONAL SOCIETY'S TRAINING COLLEGES.

BRITISH AND FOREIGN SCHOOL SOCIETY'S TRAINING COLLEGES.

WESLEYAN TRAINING COLLEGE.

ROMAN CATHOLIC TRAINING COLLEGE.

CONGREGATIONAL TRAINING COLLEGE.

HOME AND COLONIAL TRAINING COLLEGE.

53. THE COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL ON EDUCATION.

Regulations concerning Training Colleges.

Commencement of State Aid to Training Teachers.—Previous to the creation of the Committee of Council nothing had been done by the State towards the formation or the support of Training Colleges for educating persons to fulfil the duties of Teachers in Elementary Schools. It is true that in 1835 a grant of 10,000*l.* was made by Parliament towards the erection of Normal or Model Schools. This sum, however, remained in the Treasury unappropriated for some years. All that had been accomplished towards this object had been brought about by the action of the two educational bodies so often referred to in this work, namely, the National and the British and Foreign School Societies.

First Act of Committee of Council.—Almost the first act of the Committee of Council was to offer the unapplied sum of 10,000*l.*, in equal shares, to those two Societies, to be devoted to the purpose for which Parliament had intended it. Before this arrangement could be carried out, however, considerable delay again occurred in settling the conditions under which the proposed Institutions should be placed with reference to the Education Department.

Idea of Public Training College given up from Religious Difficulty.—No sooner had the Committee of Council assembled for the despatch of business, than it evinced its conviction of the urgent necessity of increasing the number of trained Teachers. In the Report of its meeting, June 3, 1839, this conviction is recorded as follows:—'The Committee are of opinion that the most useful application of any sums voted by Parliament would consist in the employment of those moneys in the establishment

of a Normal School, under the direction of the State, and not placed under the management of a Voluntary Society. The Committee, however, experience so much difficulty in reconciling conflicting views respecting the provisions which they are desirous to make in furtherance of Your Majesty's wish that the Children and Teachers instructed in this School should be duly trained in the principles of the Christian Religion, while the rights of conscience should be respected, that it is not in the power of the Committee to mature a plan for the accomplishment of this design without further consideration; and they therefore postpone taking any steps for this purpose until greater concurrence of opinion is found to prevail.'

Conditions for Public Aid—Difficulties.—The Committee of Council appears very soon to have completely given up the idea of establishing a Training College; but considerable correspondence was carried on for some few years with the two Educational Societies on the subject of the conditions on which public grants should be made to Training Colleges, originated by private benevolence, or by the action of Educational Societies. The great difficulty in settling these conditions arose from the determination of the Committee of Council to secure in perpetuity the right of inspection in the case of those Colleges to which it granted aid. The opposition occurred chiefly on the part of the British and Foreign School Society, and is described at page 451. When all objections were removed, the first Building Grants were made to the Battersea, the Edinburgh, the Glasgow, St. Mark's, and the British and Foreign Training Colleges. In addition to these, in one or two instances, an annual sum in aid of expenses was promised.

Aid to be limited to Buildings—Inspection Secured.—In 1843, the Committee determined that in future assistance to these Institutions should be limited to Building Grants, and that in no case should annual payments towards their maintenance be allowed, except where it had been already promised. At the same time it was laid down, that the right of inspection must in all cases be permanently secured by deed, and also that all applications for aid were to be made to the Committee of Council, through the Committee either of the National Society or of the British and Foreign School Society. A number of questions were drawn up in 1844 to be answered as a preliminary to the consideration of any application for a grant towards the

erection of a Normal School. If the answers were satisfactory, a grant was allowed at the rate of 50*l.* for every pupil whom the building was calculated to accommodate. Thus, if it was proposed to provide for ten students, the grant was 500*l.*; if for twenty, 1,000*l.*, and so on.

Queen's Scholars—Annual Grants.—The Minutes of 1846, in accordance with which the system of annual aid to Elementary Schools was commenced, rendered important assistance to the Training Colleges.

First: By the establishment of the system of Pupil Teachers and by granting Exhibitions to them as Queen's Scholars, in order that they might be enabled to enter the Training Colleges.

Secondly: By annual grants to the Training Colleges on account of these Queen's Scholars, which were to be at the rate of 20*l.* for the first year's training, 25*l.* for the second, and 30*l.* for the third; provided the means of instruction were satisfactory to the Committee of Council.

The first regulation supplied an excellent class of persons to train; for these Pupil Teachers were to act as Assistant Teachers in Local Schools before they could obtain a Queen's Scholarship. They therefore were likely to enter in every way fitted to take advantage of an advanced course of study, as laid down by the College. The second, by granting a system of regular annual assistance, enabled many of the Training Colleges to enlarge their sphere of action, and ultimately to make their course of instruction considerably more advanced, and more systematic, than it had previously been.

Conditions for holding Queen's Scholarships.—These Queen's Scholarships were to be obtained by competition after the completion of the five years' apprenticeship as Pupil Teacher. They might be tenable for two years, if the scholar displayed a proper amount of ability at the annual examination, and if the College had the means of affording a second year's course of study. At the end of each year, the Queen's Scholar was examined at the Training College before an Inspector, and, according to his proficiency, and the period he had been under instruction, a certificate was granted to him. This entitled him to obtain an allowance from the Committee of Council, varying from 15*l.* to 30*l.* per annum, as an augmentation to his salary when engaged in teaching an Elementary School under inspection.

Certificate Allowances to Training College Teachers.—The certi-

ficate allowance thus granted to Teachers in Elementary Schools was extended to Masters in Training Colleges, under the Minute of August 6, 1851, subject to nearly the same conditions. The Minute giving aid towards the purchase of books, maps, &c., to Elementary Schools, was likewise extended on December 10, 1851, to Normal Schools. It granted assistance for this object up to ten shillings per student, provided the College expended twenty shillings per head in every instance from its own resources.

Education too Theoretical.—The regulations thus sanctioned continued in force for some years, and under their influence the Training Colleges increased in number. The rules, however, do not seem to have given entire satisfaction. It was the opinion of the Committee of Council, which was endorsed by many persons, that certificates were granted for theoretical knowledge only, and without sufficient care being taken to test the candidates' ability to teach. It was also considered that the Training Colleges were inadequately supported; that many Pupil Teachers, after undergoing their apprenticeship, did not care to enter them; that the standard of instruction was too low; and that Queen's Scholars were not sufficiently encouraged to stay more than one year.

Extended Time of Training—Lectureships.—To meet these objections, the Minute of August 20, 1853, was passed. By this it was determined to modify the rule which restricted the number of Queen's Scholarships. They had previously been limited to 25 per cent. of the total number of students, in any College, who had at the date of the examination been a year or upwards in residence. They were by this alteration to be renewed after the first year, if the candidate passed a fair examination before the Inspector. It was further decided to allow others besides Pupil Teachers to receive Queen's Scholarships, so long as accommodation could be found for them at the Training Colleges. It was also proposed to grant the sum of 100*l.* per annum to Lecturers in History, English Literature, Geography, Physical Science, and Applied Mathematics. One lecturer was to be allowed for every thirty students, but in no case were more than three lectureships to be held in one Training College. Drawing was to form a part of the curriculum; and Queen's Scholarships of 25*l.* were to be granted, without further examination, to Assistant Teachers who had been reported on favourably by the Inspector, for three consecutive years.

Means to secure Practical Ability to teach.—As a means of securing that the certificates of merit really implied a practical ability to teach, it was decided that they were not to be granted to students while in training, but only after they had taught two years in an Elementary School. The class of certificate was then to be fixed, according to the Inspector's report, on the Teacher's ability for imparting instruction. After five years, the certificate was to be again open to revision, according to the merit of the Teacher, as shown by the Inspector's five annual reports.

Registered Teachers—Regulations.—The same Minute instituted a class of *registered*, as distinguished from *certificated*, Teachers. The object of this arrangement was to meet the case of Teachers who were disqualified by age from passing the examination for certificates; and also to afford the privilege of State aid to those schools which were not in a position to obtain certificated Teachers. These registered Teachers were required to pass a simple examination in English History, Geography, Arithmetic, including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions, English Grammar, Composition, and the Theory and Practice of Teaching. If they attended from Church of England Schools, they also had to show a proper acquaintance with the Holy Scriptures, the Catechism, and the Liturgy of the Established Church.

Infant Teachers—Regulations to Improve.—The Minute of April 29, 1854, was framed with a view of encouraging Training Colleges to educate Mistresses for Infant Schools. No College could obtain the benefits offered unless it had a special course of study for training Infant Teachers. The pupils who went through this special course, which extended over a year, were at first examined as Registered Teachers, under the regulations above referred to. If successful, they were afterwards examined before Her Majesty's Inspector as to their practical ability to teach young children, and obtained a 1st or 2nd class certificate. The Committee of Council granted to the College a sum of 15*l.*, or 10*l.*, varying according to the certificate obtained, towards the cost of training this class of Teachers.

Drawing Instruction in Colleges.—The systematic teaching of Drawing was introduced into the Training Colleges by Minute of January 26, 1854, which provided that to each Teacher holding a certificate in Drawing a sum of 1*l.* should be granted in addition to his certificate allowance, up to a maximum of 3*l.* for every Pupil Teacher instructed, and who passed at the annual

examination in one of the five Drawing stages. The Pupil Teacher was to be presented for examination in Drawing each year during his two years' residence at the Training College, with a view to his obtaining a Drawing Certificate himself before he left the Institution as a qualified Elementary School Teacher.

Uniform Payment for Queen's Scholars.—After 1856 the payments to Training Colleges on account of Queen's Scholars were made uniform, and not dependent on the grade of their success at entering. It was fixed that 23*l.* should be granted for male and 17*l.* for female scholars; and for this sum they were to be provided with tuition, board, lodging, washing, and medical attendance, without further charge. In addition to this, 1st class Queen's Scholars were personally allowed small sums each year for travelling expenses, and for the purchase of books; for the males, during their first year, 4*l.*; during their second year, 6*l.*: for the females, during their first year, 3*l.*; during their second year, 4*l.*

Regulations for Pupil Teachers entering Training Colleges.—The arrangements whereby persons could only enter the Training Colleges about December 31 in each year were found to lead to considerable difficulties, as it often happened that several months elapsed between the time of a Pupil Teacher's completing his apprenticeship and the following December 31. Many of those who had every intention of continuing the occupation of teaching were induced during this interval to take to other employments rather than waste the intervening time. In order to prevent this, it was provided by Minute of June 2, 1856, that in cases where the apprenticeship did not terminate on December 31, the Pupil Teacher should be allowed to continue in receipt of his stipend up to that date, not only, as had already been arranged, if he remained at the school and continued his duties as before, but that provision should be made for him at once to enter a Training College, if he was willing to do so. The extra time thus spent in training was not to count in the two years' course, but was to be considered as supplementary. It was also determined that each first-year Queen's Scholar should continue to receive the allowance for a second year, whenever the authorities of the College applied for the extension.

Schedule of Students.—A *Schedule* of Students, as it was called, was introduced at this time. It comprised those who had not passed the first year's examination, but who were to be allowed,

without forfeiture of their scholarships, to continue at the College, and to go up a second time in the first year's subjects. In future also the examination for Queen's Scholarships was opened to all persons, whether Pupil Teachers or otherwise. They were to be selected by the authorities of the several Colleges, on their own responsibility. The only condition was, that the candidates should be at least eighteen years of age, and (if Pupil Teachers) should not have deserted their service. By these arrangements, it was hoped to supply the vacancies in the Training Colleges, of which there were at this time no fewer than 300, notwithstanding the increased demand for Elementary Teachers.

Alteration in Regulations for Infant Teachers.—The regulations for training Mistresses for Infant Schools were considerably altered by the Minute of April 24, 1857. By this Minute, 2nd class Queen's Scholarships were offered to Pupil Teachers who had been apprenticed to the Mistresses of Infant Schools, and also to a limited number of other young persons whom the Inspector at his annual visit considered, by their manners and address, suited for dealing with very young children. These students were to form a special class at the Training College, and to be examined at Michaelmas of each year in Theoretical Knowledge; and further, in the following December, were to satisfy the Inspector as to their fitness for the practical teaching of an Infant School. Vocal Music, sufficient to qualify them to lead the infants in singing; and Drawing, so as to enable them to illustrate object lessons on the black board, were required. The payments to the College were 13*l.* for each student who obtained a 1st, and 8*l.* for each student who obtained a 2nd class in the complete examination.

Increased Attention to Domestic Occupations.—In 1858 a Circular was sent to all the Female Training Colleges, urging on the authorities the importance of giving increased attention to needlework and other domestic occupations. Complaints were made as to the want of this kind of skill in the new race of Teachers; and the Rev. Mr. Cook, after consultation with the authorities of the Training Colleges and the Committee of Council, made the Report printed in Minutes 1857–8, pp. 41–43. The recommendations in that Report were adopted, and have continued to be acted on up to the present time. To secure attention to these matters, it was decided that candidates for admission into the Training Colleges should be examined before

the Superintendent in needlework, cutting out dresses, &c., in addition to the usual examination before Her Majesty's Inspector.

Building Grants Suspended.—In 1859 it was determined by the Education Department to suspend grants towards the erection of Training Colleges, and to confine assistance to the annual payments on Queen's Scholars, &c.

Changes by Revised Code.—In passing the Revised Code through Parliament, the changes specially affecting Training Colleges were withdrawn, in consequence of the opposition raised by the authorities and promoters of these Institutions. In the following year, however, by Minute of March 21, 1863, an entire alteration was made, by which the grants, hitherto 'wholly prospective, were made completely retrospective.' This was done in the following manner:—Sums of 100*l.* for a Master, and 70*l.* for a Mistress, were taken to represent the average cost of a two years' course of training. These amounts were to be paid by the Committee of Council on each Teacher trained; but only if he or she obtained a certificate after being at the College two years, and worked in an Elementary School satisfactorily for a further period of two years. The 100*l.* or 70*l.* was then granted on account of that student, and was paid in five yearly instalments of 20*l.* or 14*l.* The first of these payments, therefore, became due in the fifth year after the Teacher had entered the College. In order to prevent the College from becoming entirely supported by Government grants, it was at the same time made a condition that the assistance in any one year was not to exceed 75 per cent. of the cost of the Institution during the preceding year; neither was it to be more than a certain proportion on the number of students in residence at the time it was granted. After this date the Queen's Scholarships ceased, and Training Colleges were left to make what terms they thought proper in admitting pupils. The candidates, as before, had to pass the examination held by Her Majesty's Inspector in those subjects required at the end of a Pupil Teacher's apprenticeship. These regulations could not come fully into force before 1868, and a fair scale was drawn up to meet the intervening period.

Changes in 1866.—Certain modifications were made in the payments to Training Colleges by Minute of June 11, 1866. As above stated, the maximum grant claimable in one year was not allowed to rise above 75 per cent. of the expenditure of the

preceding twelve months. This caused considerable hardship where Institutions extended their operations, as it precluded them for one year from reaping any advantage. This limit was therefore relaxed, and the 75 per cent. of the expenditure of the preceding year was allowed to be increased proportionately to any increase in the number of students *resident* for continuous training throughout the year in which the grant was paid. Since that time little or no change has been made in the regulations concerning the Training Colleges under the Education Department.

Statistics.—The following tables give the amount of money which has been expended on the building of Training Colleges, and also show the expenditure on their maintenance in 1868, together with the accommodation which they provided in 1869, and the extent to which it was occupied :—

Denomination	Original Cost of Buildings								
	Subscribed			Granted by Committee of Council			Total		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Church of England	194,085	14	1¾	91,474	10	3	285,560	4	4¾
British	40,425	9	7	12,203	7	6	52,628	17	1
Wesleyan	33,101	9	3	5,049	10	0	38,150	19	3
Congregational	...			...			...		
Home and Colonial	1,600	0	0	6,000	0	0	7,600	0	0
Roman Catholic	9,630	0	8	3,900	0	0	13,530	0	8
Scotch :—									
Established	14,699	7	10½	11,847	8	0	26,546	15	10½
Free Church	14,467	18	6	7,492	10	0	21,960	8	6
Episcopal	...			...			...		
Grand Totals	308,010	0	0¼	137,967	5	9	445,977	5	9¼

Denomination	Amount of Expenditure for Year 1868									Number of Students in 1869					
	Granted by Committee of Council			Balance from other sources			Total			Resident			Accommodation for		
										Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.						
Church of England	41,530	12	2	16,613	14	5	58,144	6	7	488	714	1,202	999	788	1,787
British	5,917	7	0	1,942	18	2	7,860	5	2	121	102	223	141	102	243
Wesleyan	4,071	14	3	2,384	16	5	6,456	10	8	67	64	131	72	60	132
Congregational	..			..			..			6	13	19	25	25	50
Home and Colonial	3,979	16	8	1,684	6	0	5,664	2	8	..	140	140	..	140	140
Roman Catholic	3,208	12	8	1,673	12	10	4,882	5	6	42	65	107	70	73	143
Scotch :—															
Established	6,276	2	8	2,221	0	10	8,497	11	6	111	110	221	188	16	356
Free Church	6,521	2	4	1,728	6	10	8,249	9	2	71	150	221	199	185	384
Episcopal	540	6	1	291	10	9	831	16	10	..	22	22	..	26	26
Grand Totals	72,045	13	10	28,540	14	3	100,586	8	1	906	1,380	2,286	1,694	1,567	3,261

Important Action of Training Colleges.—In reviewing the past operations of the Training Colleges of this country, it is evident that to them very largely must be attributed the important extension of Elementary Schools. It is an old maxim that, as is the teacher so is the school, and it would seem that, looking back on the past history of the Education question, and profiting by the experience it affords, the evident lesson must be as follows :—That before the uneducated masses can be drawn to school, or at any rate, before they can derive much benefit from the instruction received when they get there, means must be found for supplying Teachers, not perhaps better qualified than some of those who have been trained at the existing Institutions, but in very much larger numbers. In tracing the history of almost every branch of education, whether in connection with the Church of England, the Wesleyans, the Roman Catholics, or any other body, the universal difficulty met with is the deficiency of qualified Teachers. The class of persons at the present moment engaged, in both Boys' and Girls' Schools, is incomparably higher than those which were to be met with some thirty years ago, and these were far more fitted for their duties than Teachers at the end of the last century. These changes are almost entirely due to the efficient working of the Training Colleges, more especially since they have been aided by the Committee of Council.

Other Training Institutions—Under War and Science and Art Departments.—Two Institutions for Training Teachers remain to be mentioned, which are not included with those already referred to under the Committee of Council—one for Art Teachers, and the other for Army Schoolmasters. Each of these is under a separate Department of the public service, and an account of the details of its management is accordingly given in the chapter specially devoted to a description of the Institution itself.

54. NATIONAL SOCIETY'S TRAINING COLLEGES

First Step to Train by National Society.—The very existence of the National Society in its infancy required the creation of some school where Teachers might be shown the Madras method of instruction adopted by Dr. Bell. Hence the training of Masters formed part of the Society's original scheme, and in the first year's statement of accounts, published in 1812, the item of 77*l.* 12*s.* 9*d.* occurs for allowance to Masters, &c., in training under the direction of the Society.

Classes of Persons Trained.—This training took place at the Society's Central School in Baldwin's Gardens; and at this early stage there were two classes of persons who attended there for the purpose of preparing themselves as Teachers; first, those who had passed through the School as pupils, and who remained in order that when qualified they might be ready for situations at schools in different parts of the country; and secondly, those who were sent by the Diocesan or District Societies, in order to fit them for any situation to which they might be appointed on their return home. In the year 1812 no fewer than 37 of the former and 45 of the latter were thus trained. Their travelling and personal expenses were entirely defrayed by the Society.

Plan of Organising Teachers.—As a temporary expedient, the Society at this period of its history retained ten experienced Masters in its employ, and sent them, on application, for a few months to different parts of the country. This was done to facilitate localities in commencing schools, and getting them into fair working order. It was also thought that these Masters might accompany the young Trained Teachers to their new appointments, and put them in the way of their duties. They were in this way the means of greatly improving the organisation and mode of teaching in the schools.

Training of Mistresses.—The training of Mistresses, which was superintended by a Committee of Ladies, was carried on at the Girls' School at the same time, and after a similar plan to that adopted in the Boys' School at Baldwin's Gardens for the male Teachers. It was not thought necessary, however, to retain any Mistresses permanently to visit the provinces, as was done in the case of the Masters. All applicants for training were required to send a certificate, from the clergyman of the parish where they lived, of their being members of the United Church of England and Ireland.

Decrease of Training Work.—Up to 1816 as many as 336 Masters and 86 Mistresses had been trained; and the cost of this branch of the Society's work amounted in that year to 690*l.* 11*s.* 9*d.* Owing, however, to the low state of the funds, the number of Masters under training was gradually reduced; and in 1821 the cost of the Masters and Mistresses at the Training School fell to 259*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.*, though in other respects the work of the Society in spreading National Schools throughout the country considerably increased.

Provincial Training Schools.—The plan successfully adopted by the National Society from the first, and carried out chiefly by the influence of the Bishops, was the establishment of Central or Model Schools in most of the larger towns, based on the principles adopted at the Central School in London. Besides their functions as excellent Elementary Schools, they were adapted to prepare many promising young persons as Teachers who were unable to go to London, by imparting to them the groundwork of a correct training, and affording them practical experience near their own homes. In this way the Central School in the Metropolis was enabled to make the course of instruction more advanced to those few who were sent to it, and who were selected on account of their superior abilities.

Great Want of an Enlarged System.—The rapid growth of the National Schools, and the increased demand for highly qualified Teachers, made it evident that the training was not sufficient, but that the time had come to extend it considerably if first-rate Teachers were to be produced. In the Report for 1841, the Society announced its intention of establishing a Training Institution or College for Schoolmasters near the Metropolis, having come to the conclusion 'that to make the Schoolmaster as

efficient in his vocation as the follower of any other calling, a regular preparation or apprenticeship is indispensable.' The Report further stated it to be obvious that the training of Teachers should be more efficient and systematic than that of an ordinary mechanic; and that a plan which left the profession of teaching to persons who were reduced by failure in other callings to take it up as a means of livelihood could not be successful.

Chelsea and Whitelands Institution—Subjects of Instruction.—To carry out this purpose the Chelsea Training College, for sixty male students, was established and opened in 1841; and the Female College at Whitelands, Chelsea, which had been in operation for two years, was improved and enlarged at about the same time. The subjects of instruction were Latin, English, Geography, History, Writing, Arithmetic, Bookkeeping, Geometry, Algebra, Natural Philosophy, Linear Drawing, Music, Theory and Practice of Teaching, and Religion. All the students were to board on the premises, and assist during certain hours in teaching at the Model School attached. During the latter part of his stay every student was required to visit the different schools in the neighbourhood, in order to give instruction.

Reasons for Excluding Science.—It will be noticed that Science was not included in the curriculum, the reason, as given in the Report for 1843, being that, however useful in its application to Mechanical Arts, it was of no avail in increasing the power of thought and language. This omission, as also the deficiency of instruction in the specific art of teaching, were drawn attention to by Canon Moseley in 1846, and were consequently supplied at a later period of the School.

Rules for Admission and Students' Apprenticing—Fees.—On entering the College, at the age of about fifteen or sixteen, each student remained for three months on probation; and if his conduct was satisfactory, he was then apprenticed as a Teacher from that time until he had completed his twenty-first year. This was to prevent youths from giving up the occupation of teaching after having received the benefits of the Institution. It was at first required that a premium should be charged when the student was apprenticed, of such an amount as would be sufficient to cover his personal expenses. This, however,

reduced the number of eligible candidates, as it was found that those who were most fitted for the work were not persons in the upper classes, but sons of small tradesmen, superior artisans, and others having respectable homes, who were quite unable to make such an outlay, even though it held out every probability of being ultimately profitable. To meet this, a few free apprenticeships, open to public competition, were established; but much difficulty continued to be felt in securing a sufficient number of really eligible pupils at the right age; and the funds of the Society would not enable it to increase the number of free apprenticeships very largely.

Battersea College—How Started—Change of Plan.—The Battersea Training College was also commenced about this time, chiefly by the private liberality of Sir James Kay Shuttleworth and Mr. Carleton Tufnell, who together expended about 2,500*l.* in furthering this object. It was started on the model of the Kruitzlingen School, in Switzerland, the founders being much struck with the system there pursued, and thinking that it might answer in this country. The students at Kruitzlingen were brought up in a spirit of humility and self-sacrifice, and apart from views of personal advancement. They were accustomed to the most simple mode of life, and to hard manual labour. 'Their food was of the coarsest character, consisting chiefly of vegetables, soups, and very brown bread;' and they passed a great part of their time in cultivating the land for their own subsistence, besides doing all the work required in keeping the school-buildings in repair. Following this example, the pupils at Battersea, who were taken in very young (from fourteen to sixteen years of age), many from the Pauper School at Norwood, were also accustomed to work in cultivating land, and other methods of earning their own livelihood. The mode of treatment, however, was not found to be of a character calculated to fortify them against the temptations to which they would be liable when appointed to large schools, and it was decided that the age of admission should be raised to eighteen or twenty, and the rules made similar to those of the other Training Colleges of the National Society.

Government Grant—Plentiful Supply of Pupils.—In the year 1841 the Committee of Council on Education made a grant of 1,000*l.* per annum towards the funds of the National Society for the purposes of the Training Colleges. This enabled the

number of free apprenticeships to be largely increased. The difficulty of obtaining a sufficient number of candidates for admission does not appear to have been long experienced after this; for in 1843 the Principal reported that he considered that the Institution at Chelsea could be enlarged almost indefinitely with pupils willing to defray at least the expense of their own maintenance and clothing.

Regulations for the Admission of Students.—The regulations for candidates applying to enter the Chelsea Training College were drawn up with great precision. Certificates were required, not only as to character, but also as to *personal appearance.** Inquiry was made concerning their temper and disposition, particularly as to their fondness for children, and their views as to the best mode of managing them. On entering the College, each was examined in his knowledge of the Bible and Prayer Book, Sacred History, Geography, Reading, Writing, Spelling, Grammar, and Arithmetic. The instruction was gratuitous, but each was required to pay 8*l.* 8*s.* per quarter to the National Society towards the cost of his board.

Exhibitions for Female Students—Improvement of Teachers' Salaries.—The growth of the National Schools continued, however, to be greater than the supply of good Teachers, and in 1845 the National Society set apart 2,000*l.* to provide Exhibitions, in order to induce eligible females to come up as candidates for admission to the Whitelands Female Training College. In the following year the National Society reported that hopeful signs began to be seen of young persons taking more and more to the profession of teaching as an eligible position in life. The average salary of Teachers at this time was from 50*l.* to 90*l.* per annum, but the position was only now commencing to be looked upon at all with the respect which its importance deserved.

Local Training Colleges—Statistics.—The Local Training Schools under the Diocesan Boards, which grew out of the Diocesan Model Schools, now became important branches of the Church of England Training Establishment. Schools existed in the following places in connection with the National Society, in addition to those in London at St. Mark's, Chelsea, Whitelands, Battersea, and Westminster:—

* This requirement was not very strictly enforced however.

	No. of School-masters in Training	No. of School-mistresses in Training	Period of Training
Canterbury . . .	4	4	Six months at least
York . . .	36	8	One to three years
Durham . . .	13	...	Six months to two years
Winchester . . .	19	...	Six months at least
Chester . . .	41	20	One year at least
Chichester . . .	10	11	Two years
Exeter . . .	19	...	Three years
Bristol . . .	6	...	Three years
Lichfield . . .	26	...	Two years
Lincoln . . .	60	...	Two years
Newport . . .	2	...	Three to twelve months
Norwich . . .	3	7	Three months
Oxford . . .	14	6	One year
Salisbury . . .	...	26	One year
Worcester . . .	6	...	One year and a half
Total . .	259	82	

Increase of Accommodation of Colleges by State Assistance.—In consequence of the liberal Government arrangements made in 1846 for aiding in the support of Training Colleges, the National Society determined the year after to enlarge their London Institutions; and several of those in the provinces at this same time considerably extended their accommodation. The great demand for Teachers caused by the offer of annual grants to schools may be judged of from the fact that in this year the Society received 598 applications for Teachers which it was unable to supply, either from the Metropolis, or from any of the Local Diocesan Establishments.

Pupil Teacherships—Preparation for Teacherships.—The action of the new Minutes of the Committee of Council, both by enlarging the sphere and extent of the Training Colleges, and by their regulations for supplying eligible candidates for admission, in time led materially to decrease this want. The Pupil Teacher System, which it brought into existence, supplied good material for Queen's Scholars, who were well prepared to enter the Colleges to be trained as Teachers.

Increase of Salaries—Reduction of College Fees.—The salaries of Masters in Elementary Schools increased about 1851, when the Society reported that they varied from 100*l.* to 50*l.*; the average being 65*l.*, exclusive of the Government aid. This induced persons in a somewhat superior rank of life to enter on the profession of teaching—a result which was further encouraged by the terms of admission to the St. Mark's Training College

being somewhat altered. The entrance fee was dispensed with, and after the first and second certificate of merit had been obtained, a reduction of 10*l.* and 15*l.* was made to each student in the annual charge for the following year. The authorities were enabled to do this, in consequence of the Government assistance, but it was laid down as a condition that the term of training should not be less than two years.

Increased Dependence on Public Aid.—For the next few years the Training Colleges continued steadily to educate Teachers without any material alteration, except that they became more and more dependent on the public purse, and the annual grant from the National Society to each of the London Institutions was gradually reduced. It was found necessary to increase the accommodation on more than one occasion, partly out of funds specially collected by Queen's Letters, although these were not continued after 1856, and partly by Building Grants from the Committee of Council, although these last were not made to any Institution after 1860.

Effects of Revised Code—Addition made to Fees.—The next alteration of importance in the history of Training Colleges of the National Society was made shortly after the introduction of the Revised Code. By this the whole system of annual aid was completely changed, and became, in the strictest sense, a payment on results. The annual amount to each College was dependent, not on the average number of students adequately trained for the work of education, but on the number of Schoolmasters who, having been trained in the College for two years, and having duly taken the certificate, had afterwards actually taught for a further two years in a School under Government Inspection. As a means of stimulating private energy, and to prevent the Colleges from looking to the State for everything they received, it was further laid down that aid in no case should exceed 75 per cent. on the whole yearly expenditure. In consequence of these changes a fee of 10*l.* was, after this, imposed on each student at the St. Mark's and the Battersea Colleges, and 5*l.* at the Whitelands Institution.

Decrease in Candidates owing to Revised Code.—In order to assist in tiding over the changes thus effected (which, however, came into force only by degrees, otherwise all the Colleges must have closed), the National Society somewhat increased their aid by making a Capitation grant of 2*l.* 10*s.* for each student in

residence at their three Colleges who passed at the Christmas Examination. The number of candidates for admission, however, at this time seriously decreased, in consequence of the action of the Revised Code, and the distrust felt in the regulations of the Committee of Council. The number of Pupil Teachers fell from 16,277 in 1861 to 12,161 in 1864.

Financial changes got over—Still suffer from Reduction of Pupil Teachers.—The financial difficulties and dangers anticipated from these changes in the mode of payment to Training Institutions do not seem to have been so great as were feared, though it took some years before the effect produced had died away. This is shown by the Report of the National Society for 1867, which states that the balance-sheets of all the three London Colleges were in a flourishing condition, so that the Government grants appear to have been sufficient to keep them in good working order. The Diocesan Institutions throughout the country seem also to have got over this financial change; but the more serious difficulty incident on the action of the Revised Code was the reduction of the number of Pupil Teachers, an evil which is still discernible both in the Training Colleges and in Local Schools.

Important Results from the Action of Colleges.—No important changes have since occurred in the Church of England Training Colleges, which have continued, to the present time, subject to these regulations. Though started, in most instances, by private energy, and principally by the efforts of the clergy, and supported for many years entirely by subscriptions, their action has become so important, and their uses to the community so obvious and urgent, that they have gradually almost assumed the character of Institutions maintained by the State. The condition of the country no doubt at present requires an enlarged system for supplying Trained Masters; but the work that has been done, both by the Colleges of the National Society and by the various Local Diocesan Institutions which, by its indirect influence, have been created, has tended in no small degree to bring about the improvements in Elementary Education which have so obviously taken place during the last fifty years.

55. THE BRITISH AND FOREIGN SCHOOL SOCIETY'S TRAINING COLLEGES.

Early Deficiency of Teachers.—The want of a due supply of qualified Teachers, which even at the present time is one of the chief impediments to the more rapid spread of education, was seriously felt at the commencement of this century by the British and Foreign as well as by the National Society in their early attempts to improve the educational status of the community. No sooner had Lancaster commenced his work than it was found necessary to adopt some method of training Teachers for the schools, which were rapidly springing up in all parts, conducted on his system.

First Training Work of Lancaster.—For this purpose, in 1805, a sum of 4,000*l.* was collected, through the instrumentality of Lancaster; and a number of young lads, who were leading Monitors in his School in the Borough Road, were boarded, clothed, and apprenticed as Teachers. In 1810 no fewer than fifty young men were trained as Schoolmasters. These were clothed and fed at the Institution, and were required to practise daily in giving instruction at the Model British School attached to the Training College. The annual cost of this, which fell entirely on the Institution, was 1,400*l.* The training of these students was not commensurate with the course of study which is now pursued at a Training College. It was usually limited to a few months, and was at first really confined to initiating a young man into Lancaster's new system of teaching, by giving him the benefit of the superintendence of a large class, under the eye of Lancaster himself. As the scheme grew, the course of training gradually extended, though for many years it was limited to a few months' residence at the College. It was, in fact, not until the introduction of State aid to Training Institutions that a two years' course, such as is now required, was attempted anywhere.

Schools to which Teachers thus trained were to be sent.—The schools to which the Teachers were sent, after they were thus trained, are defined in the first code of rules, published in 1813, viz: 'All schools which shall be supplied with Teachers at the expense of this Institution, shall be open to the children of parents of all religious denominations; Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, and Needlework shall be taught; the lessons for Reading shall consist of extracts from the Holy Scriptures; no Catechisms or peculiar religious tenets shall be taught, but every child shall be enjoined to attend regularly the place of worship to which his or her parents belong.'

The British System adopted in the Training College.—The so-called British system (described in detail in the chapter on British Schools) was strictly carried out at the Training College, and as long as Lancaster remained in connection with the Institution he superintended it as supplementary to the Model British School, and as a branch of his general scheme for improving the educational state of the country.

Both Masters and Mistresses Trained.—Almost from the commencement both Masters and Mistresses were trained, the number varying between thirty and fifty, according to the state of the funds at the disposal of the Society. The female students were placed under the immediate superintendence of a Ladies' Committee.

Difficulty to obtain eligible Persons to Train.—The Society reported in 1828 on the great obstacles in the way of obtaining suitable persons to train, owing to the small income in prospect for them as Teachers. At this time the emolument to Masters and Mistresses depended entirely on subscriptions and the amount of children's pence. The uncertainty of the occupation, and the feeling that the position was not socially very highly esteemed, seemed to operate in preventing persons of respectability from coming forward. The result was, that a great number of the applicants consisted of those who took to teaching as a new trade, in consequence of their having failed in every other undertaking which they had attempted. No amount of training was likely to convert such candidates into good Teachers.

Attention devoted to subject by British and Foreign Society.—These difficulties, and the manifest importance of creating a class of men and women fitted both morally and intellectually

for so serious and responsible a duty as that of training and educating the young, gradually led the British and Foreign School Society to consider the development of the Training College as their most important work. In their Report for 1831, they stated that this was the more necessary as the British Schools, which were springing up in all parts, required to be supplied with competent Teachers. Moreover, as local interest in education had now considerably increased, the energy of the Society could the more resolutely be directed to the work of supplying the wants of the Institutions it had been the means of bringing into existence.

Statistics—Subjects Taught.—Up to the year 1834 no fewer than 1,000 Teachers had been sent from this one Central Training College to British Schools in different parts of the country. The course of study, in addition to the ordinary elementary subjects, embraced Geography, Geometry, English Grammar, History, General Useful Knowledge, and Religion.

Improvement in Candidates—Enlargement of College.—The question of popular education at this period became one of the important topics of the day. Owing to this, and also to the feeling of permanency which was secured to schools by the money voted by Parliament this year for the first time in aid of School Buildings, the applications for British School Teachers became more numerous than ever. It was therefore determined to enlarge the premises of the Training College, and the additional accommodation thus provided enabled the Committee in the ensuing year to increase the number under instruction to 65 Masters and 38 Mistresses. In the following year a further increase took place, whereby the number was raised to 173. The course of training at this time was spread over only three months. This was felt to be far too little, and consequently, in 1837, the Committee of the British and Foreign School Society, in order to supplement it as much as possible, encouraged the formation of associations among Teachers themselves for mutual improvement, and for the discussion of practical subjects connected with elementary instruction.

Erection of Present Buildings.—About the year 1839 the spread of education was so great, and the demand for trained Masters and Mistresses became so urgent, that the supporters of British Schools determined to raise a sum of 20,000*l.* and to build large

premises capable of accommodating sixty Teachers, in addition to the space required for the Model Schools. A discussion ensued as to the locality where this building should be erected. Some were in favour of removing the whole Institution into the country; but the difficulty of finding a sufficient supply of children for a Model or Practising School at any distance from the metropolis was a serious objection to the proposal. It was finally settled that the School and the New Training College should remain in the Borough Road, and the present site was obtained on very liberal terms from the Corporation of the City of London. The existing building was completed in 1844, and has been occupied ever since. The Female Training School, which at first formed part of it, was removed in 1861 to spacious premises at Stockwell; and at these two Institutions the chief work of the British and Foreign School Society has since been carried on.

Commencement of Public Aid.—Up to the year 1839 the entire maintenance of the Society depended on private subscriptions, since it was in no way aided by public grants, nor was the Institution liable to Government inspection or supervision. The results it had achieved were due to the exertions of private individuals, having at heart the promotion of the cause of education in this country. In this year, however, the commencement of the great change took place, by which Training Colleges for Elementary Teachers eventually became dependent to a great extent on the public funds.

Conditions for Receiving Public Aid.—The sum of 10,000*l.* voted by Parliament in 1835, for the erection of Normal Schools, had not been expended. This was directed by Minute of the Committee of Council, dated August 9, 1839, to be divided in equal proportions between the National and the British and Foreign School Societies. The latter Society was at this very time about to commence erecting the new premises above referred to, for the purposes of a Training School, and consequently applied to the Government for the conditions on which this assistance could be granted. The chief condition laid down, and the one which led to a long correspondence, was that an Inspector, acting under the authority of the Committee of Council, should in perpetuity be enabled to visit and inspect the school. It was not proposed that he should examine into the religious instruction, but he was to be empowered to inquire into the

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(See page 74)

character of the secular teaching carried on, and to obtain such general information as would enable the Committee of Council to report annually to Her Majesty as to whether the Public Funds granted to the Institution were, in their opinion, properly expended.

Division of the Society.—The question of receiving Government aid, however, was one upon which the British and Foreign School Society to a certain extent was divided. One party, afterwards called 'Voluntaryists,' of which the Congregationalists formed a large section, seceded, as they considered that independence was not compatible with State aid in any form. Another, and by far the larger section, broadly accepted the offer on the above conditions; and it was not until the details of the arrangement came to be worked out that further difficulties arose.

Arrangement for Appointment of Impartial Inspectors.—The officers appointed by the Education Department to inspect State-aided Schools were to be subject to the approval of, and liable to be dismissed by, the Archbishop of the province. As the Archbishops were also the ruling power in the National Society, it was felt that the Inspectors would have a bias in favour of the National System. This, it was suggested, might be got over in large towns by appointing several Inspectors; but in rural districts the British Schools were too few to warrant this additional expense, and consequently gentlemen would frequently inspect schools conducted on plans with which they did not sympathise. Their influence and conduct, however impartial, could not, it was feared, fail to weaken the influence of the Parent Society. The Society, therefore, requested that any suggestions which Inspectors might think fit to make, or any irregularities they might report, should be submitted in writing to the Committee of Council, and copies sent in the first instance to the Parent Society. The Society's books and publications, it was also thought, should be recommended for use in all British Schools. The Committee of Council accordingly passed a Minute, granting all these concessions, and requiring also that care should be taken to appoint only such Inspectors of British Schools as would command the confidence of the Society.

Ill-Effect of First Inspection Report.—Great fear, however, continued to be felt, in spite of all these precautions, that the action of the Government would tend to suspend local effort, centralise

all educational influence, and, as a certain consequence, that ere long the great existing Institutions of the country would be broken up. The correspondence which took place on the subject at last led to a deputation waiting on the Lord President of the Council (Lord Wharncliffe), when the proposal of an annual grant to the Normal School was considered, and matters were thought on all sides to be mutually and amicably settled. Everything was, however, again disturbed by the first Report of the Inspector on British Schools. This the Society considered framed on principles hostile to their system, and of a tendency likely to depreciate their work.

Finally Settled—Suspicion of State Aid—How Manifested.—The controversy was finally settled at the end of 1843, after four years' correspondence. It was then mutually agreed to allow the insertion of a clause in the deed of trust, granting 5,000*l.* in aid of the buildings of the Training College, and empowering the Society at any time to decline Government inspection on repaying this sum. An assurance was also given by the Education Department, similar to that previously obtained in Scotland, viz.: that no Inspector of the Schools of the British and Foreign School Society should be appointed without the full concurrence of the Committee of that Society. In spite of all these conciliations, however, so strong was the feeling at the time against State aid and interference, that 5,000*l.* was collected, and placed in the English funds, to be ready, if occasion required, to enable the Society to repay the Government grant, and thus be quit of its supposed dangerous ally—the State. The money remains thus invested to this day.

Changes since this Period.—An annual grant of 750*l.* was also made in 1844, by the Committee of Council, towards the expenses of the Institution; and this payment, after having been made for nineteen consecutive years, was discontinued in 1864, when the system of payment on results was fully established. The various rules and regulations which after this were put in force for the management of Training Colleges, and the way in which the grants from the State were made at different times, were almost the same at all Colleges; they are consequently not given here, but will be found briefly sketched out in the history of the Education Department in reference to Training Colleges, page 429.

Difficulty of Supplying Pupils to Train—Effect of Revised Code on this.—The difficulty of finding persons suitable for the work of teaching is frequently alluded to in the history of the Borough Road Institution. In 1851 it was specially noticed as being the most serious difficulty with which the Committee had to contend. It was then hoped that the Pupil Teacher class would soon furnish an adequate supply of persons; and this proved to be the case, so that for about ten years the College was filled without difficulty. The action of the Revised Code in 1861 tended again to diminish the number of persons willing to enter on the occupation of teaching, owing to the want of confidence created by so violent a change. This difficulty has, however, to a considerable extent disappeared; for applicants were refused this year, for want of accommodation, at both the Borough Road and the Stockwell Colleges.

Female College Removed to Stockwell—Change in Feeling concerning Inspection.—In the year 1861, as before stated, the female branch of the College was removed to a fine building at Stockwell, erected for the purpose at a cost of 22,306*l.* 18*s.* 8*d.* A Government grant of 5,742*l.* 12*s.* was received in aid of the building fund, and the state of feeling concerning the danger of Government inspection had so far changed since the erection of the Borough Road Institution, twenty years before, that it was not thought necessary to introduce the clause concerning the repayment of the grant, respecting which there had been such a heated correspondence in 1840. The right of inspection to this Institution was willingly granted to Government in perpetuity.

Religious Liberty always the Fundamental Rule.—The plan of education pursued at the Training Colleges of the British and Foreign School Society has varied considerably and gradually improved during the sixty years they have been in operation. The fundamental rule of the Institution has, however, always remained the same. It has maintained that no child's education can be complete unless he is taught from the Bible 'to love the Lord his God with all his heart and his neighbour as himself;' but that 'the consciences of all are entitled to respect, and that no child should suffer any disability because of the conscientious views of his parents.' This was thus stated in a Report of the Society of 1831, which asserted that 'Education should be based on respect for conscience, veneration for *conscientiousness*, and that most of all in the humblest and poorest of the land.

It must be acknowledged that the recent expression of public feeling has proved the truth of what was asserted so long ago, in the same Report for 1831, namely, that 'enlarged experience, renewed controversy, inquiry, reflection, discussion and debate, have all tended to strengthen the conviction that on no other basis can any form of National Education safely or permanently rest.'

Religious Teaching Given to all Denominations.—At both the Borough Road and the Stockwell Colleges systematic attention is given to religious instruction. Sunday Bible-classes are kept up, and the students assemble daily for family worship and Biblical study. No difficulty is experienced in the matter, though in 1869 the religious persuasions of the students were as follows:—In the Borough Road 18 were members of the Church of England; 25 Independents; 15 Baptists; 10 Wesleyans; 7 Presbyterians; 4 Methodists of the Free Church; 2 Primitive Methodists; 2 Methodists of the New Connection; 2 members of the New Jerusalem Church; 2 Unitarians; 1 Calvinistic Methodist; 1 Plymouth Brother; and 1 Moravian. At the Stockwell College there were 29 members of the Church of England; 27 Independents; 15 Baptists; 15 Wesleyans; 6 Presbyterians; 4 Unitarians; and 5 belonging to one or other of the Methodist bodies, Primitive, Calvinistic, New Connection, and Free Church. The staff of officers and Teachers is divided in a very similar manner and, like the Committee of the Society, has representatives from almost every denomination, several being members of the Church of England, though no difficulty is ever experienced in consequence.

Mode of Giving Religious Instruction.—The mode of religious instruction pursued is for the Teacher to expound the Bible according to his own views, and when meeting with passages involving difficulties or controverted points, to state the opinions of the best commentators, to whatever section of the Christian Church they may belong, and to leave the students to form their own views on the subject. The examination in Biblical knowledge is conducted in a similar manner; the rule of the Institution being, as stated in the last Report, 'not *toleration*, but *respect for each other's conscientious convictions*.'

Conclusion.—The development of the Borough Road Training College forms an important chapter in the history of the pro-

gress of education in this country, it having proceeded concurrently with the advance of the British Schools. It has trained, up to the present time, about 2,600 male and female British Teachers. The disputed question, as to whether this or the first Training School of the National Society was really the pioneer, is said to be still open to some doubt. Whichever Society can claim this distinction, it is certain that both have been largely instrumental in bringing about the present state of education, which, though still sadly deficient, must have been immeasurably worse but for their noble and patriotic efforts.

56. WESLEYAN TRAINING COLLEGE.

Origin of Wesleyan Education System.—The system of training Teachers for the Wesleyan Schools dates its origin from the Wesleyan Methodist Centenary in 1839. That year completed the period of one hundred years since the Society's foundation, and a special subscription was raised among the members, as a token of gratitude for the benefits which they considered had been conferred upon them through the instrumentality of Methodism. No less than 216,000*l.* was collected, from which a sum of 5,000*l.* was set apart for educational purposes.

Wesleyans sent to Glasgow to be Trained.—The immediate difficulty which met the Educational Committee, to whom this sum was entrusted, was the want of qualified Teachers. They, therefore, determined to invest the money for a time, and to devote the interest to the training of Masters at the Glasgow Free Church Normal College, conducted by Mr. Stow. Three young persons, accordingly, were sent to Glasgow, and the Committee continued to keep that number at the College for the next four years, vacancies being filled up as they occurred. The great increase in the number of the Wesleyan Day Schools soon rendered it necessary to do something more than this. Accordingly, in 1843, a special fund exceeding 20,000*l.* was raised, and a larger number of pupils placed at Glasgow. In this way 448 students were instructed as School Teachers at a cost of 10,438*l.*, or 24*l.* a head, before the Wesleyan community possessed a Training Institution of its own.

Efforts to Start Training College—Opening at Westminster.—The example which had been set by the Established Church during the years 1843 to 1847 of establishing Normal Schools, was readily followed by this influential body, who saw the advantage to their own schools of creating a Training College, conducted

strictly according to their own views, and subject to their entire control and management. Accordingly, the Wesleyan Committee, whose functions and mode of appointment are fully described under the Chapter on 'Wesleyan Schools,' collected funds for this object; and in a few years a sum of nearly 40,000*l.* was raised, including a grant of 7,500*l.* from the Education Department. The Committee was thus enabled to build a Training College on an advantageous site at Westminster, which alone cost no less than 10,000*l.*, and on October 6, 1851, to open the Institution; the five Practising Schools, which may be said to form a part of the scheme, having been in working order some months previously.

Accommodation Provided.—The College, which is now one of the largest in the country, was opened with a very modest attendance. Only ten students, paying 15*l.* a-year each for board, lodging, and instruction, were present at the inaugural address—eight males and two females—though the number was increased in a few days to twenty-one; viz., seventeen males and four females. Accommodation had been provided for one hundred, but it was some little time before the Institution received its full complement. Sixteen months after its commencement there were forty-seven male and twenty-one female students, making altogether sixty-eight under regular instruction.

Mode of Admission to College.—In the mode of selecting students for this Normal School the greatest care is taken. An investigation is invariably made into the character of the candidates, all of whom must be Wesleyans. Ability, power, and aptness for teaching are specially requisite. None are taken unless they are recommended by well-known persons, who can vouch for their character. An examination is held for candidates for admission in Elementary Theology, Scripture History, English History, Geography, English Grammar, Arithmetic, and the Theory of Music. In addition to this, each is required to show some talent for conducting the exercises of children in Psalmody.

Course and Period of Study—Based on Glasgow System.—The course of study pursued at the College embraces the usual subjects of an advanced education. Religious Instruction is carefully attended to, a portion of each day being devoted to its inculcation. Reading, English Grammar, Writing, Arithmetic, Book-keeping, English History, and Geography form the more

elementary subjects. Particular attention is given to *School Management*, which subject embraces the organisation, discipline, and general management of an Elementary School. In addition to these, Algebra, Geometry, Mensuration, Mechanics, the Elements of Physical Science, General History, the History and Etymology of the English Language, Latin, Drawing, and Music make up the subjects of the curriculum. For the female students, Sewing and Needlework are added; and a few of the subjects taught to the male branch, as Mathematics, &c., are somewhat curtailed. The general system throughout is based upon that of the Glasgow Normal College, originated and for many years carried on by the late Mr. David Stow. The period during which students remain is two years, being the same as that at most kindred Institutions. Each student is boarded and provided with everything necessary, except clothes and books.

Increase in Students.—The number of Students in 1855 had increased to 97; that is, sixty males and thirty-seven females, or only three short of the full number which the College would accommodate. Of the fifty-eight who left that year, no fewer than fifty-six at once received appointments to Wesleyan Schools.

Changes in Study—Canon Moseley's Scheme Approved.—The course of study remained unchanged for several years. In 1854 it was thought desirable to make use of more frequent and systematic written examinations, as experience showed that the practice of composition thus brought into use was valuable in promoting clearer apprehension, and in securing more accurate expression. The graduated course planned by Canon Moseley, and issued in 1854 by the Committee of Council, somewhat modified the mode of conducting the studies at this College, as elsewhere. By this arrangement, the course of examination was spread over two years, and the payment to the College was made in proportion to the success of the students at the end of each year. The Wesleyan Committee approved of the alteration, and considered that the progress made would thereby be rendered more sound, and ultimately more extensive, in proportion as each student's knowledge was made more definite and accurate, although the number of subjects of study undertaken at the same time by each pupil was necessarily restricted.

Efficient State of College.—The rule requiring that each student,

before being sent out to take charge of a school, should have undergone a course of training for two years, seems to have been rigidly enforced in all cases, and not even the pressure of circumstances allowed it for some years to be broken through. The working of the Institution, as reported by Her Majesty's Inspector in 1855, appears to have been eminently successful. He states: 'On the whole I feel justified in presenting the Institution to your Lordships as a highly efficient establishment for the religious, moral and professional training of Teachers, and as fully deserving of all the public support which existing regulations enable it to claim.'

Encouragement to Science—Laboratory.—An important stimulus was given at this time to the instruction in Science by the offer of aid from the Committee of Council towards the purchase of apparatus. The Wesleyan Committee embraced the offer, and at once fitted up a Laboratory, and purchased 150*l.* worth of apparatus. Towards the cost of this a Government grant of half the expense of fitting up and two-thirds of that of the apparatus was obtained. The Wesleyan Committee undertook this, because they considered that a general acquaintance with Physical Science was almost essential to the Master of an Elementary School. This statement showed that the Wesleyan body was perhaps in advance of the general feeling prevalent at that time on the subject.

Practising Schools.—The five Practising and Model Schools in connection with the College were continued with great success, and in 1856 two Queen's Scholars were appointed to the College from one of these schools.

Increased Demand for Teachers—Extension of Premises.—At the commencement of 1858 the demand for Wesleyan Teachers became so great, that the Committee found the accommodation at the Training College insufficient. Though very much against their wish, it was found necessary to send out several students before they had completed their two years' training. Again the number of Pupil Teachers applying for admission was too great to be accommodated, and the Committee desired to train, in addition to these, some who had not been Pupil Teachers. Notwithstanding, therefore, the determination of the Committee of Council to cease in future making building grants to Normal Schools, the Wesleyan Committee took measures to secure increased space from their own resources.

Improvements in Teaching—Practical Working.—The changes which were made in the work of the College in 1858 were not many, but in one or two particulars improvements were effected. The instruction in School Management was divided into first and second year's teaching. The lectures to the first-year students were chiefly of a practical nature, detailing the various systems of school organisation, in connection with the history of education, and giving illustrations of what are considered the best school methods generally. The second year's course was more theoretical, and included a brief sketch of Mental Philosophy, and its manifold applications to education. All students were required to spend three hours each week in the Practising Schools, and before the year's course was completed each had to devote one whole week to giving instruction in one of these Practising Schools.

Miss Burdett Coutts' Efforts for Improving Female Teachers.—An effort was made by Miss Burdett Coutts about this time, with the support of Lord Granville, the Lord President of the Council, to draw the attention of parents in the middle classes of life to the Government system of education, as forming a source of remunerative and honourable employment for their daughters. Circulars were issued accordingly, setting forth these views of the subject. Those who had promising daughters were urged to allow them to pass through a course of training, in order to become qualified as Teachers. The publication of these circulars was largely assisted by Miss Burdett Coutts, and although it is difficult to ascertain the practical effects produced by them, yet the effort no doubt was the cause of beneficial results.

Regulations to Secure that Trained Persons became Teachers.—In 1860 a correspondence took place with the Committee of Council respecting the obligations of future service, which the acceptance of Queen's Scholarships imposed on the students. It appeared that, in not a few instances, persons entered a Training College without any idea of afterwards pursuing the avocation of Teachers. Many of these Institutions had not required any declaration from the candidates as to their future intentions, nor indeed had they apparently given the subject their consideration. The consequence was that a loss of public money had ensued, it being obvious that the aid towards training was only granted on the understanding that the students thus aided should afterwards devote themselves to the occupation of

teaching in schools for the poor. The Wesleyan Education Committee, however, was an exception to this, as it had always made careful inquiries, and required written answers to a number of questions specially bearing on this point. These arrangements were approved by the Education Department; but it was considered desirable that, in future, each applicant should sign a formal declaration, undertaking, when he or she had passed through the Training College, to teach in some school frequented by children of the working-classes.

Revised Code—Opinion of Wesleyans.—The changes in the regulations as to aid under the Revised Code of the Committee of Council, necessarily had an important effect in reducing the payments to the Wesleyan Institution. The Committee, however, remarked in their Report in 1862 that, in their opinion, the Institution had taken such firm hold of the goodwill of the Methodist people, as to ensure its efficiency being maintained by the Methodists themselves, whatever might be the increased quota of help which future legislation might make necessary.

Enlargement of College from Private Sources.—In 1858 the College, without any aid from Government, purchased two houses contiguous to it, and thus increased accommodation was provided for about twenty-eight additional pupils. In 1862 a further enlargement took place, by which provision was made for six more female students, increasing, in all, the accommodation to that sufficient for 135 students.

Deficiency of Candidates—Reduction of Fees.—The result of the action of the Revised Code was, however, severely felt in the opposite direction, namely, in the diminution of the applicants for admission. This was most apparent in 1864, when the supply of Pupil Teachers was seriously diminished. The Wesleyan Committee thus became alive to the probability that, while their schools all over the kingdom were increasing, the supply of Teachers would in a year or two be inadequate to meet their requirements. To obviate this, they undertook to take students on more liberal terms than hitherto. Those who gained 1st class at the examination for admission were allowed to enter gratis, and those who passed in the 2nd class were required to pay but two guineas for the two years' training. Notwithstanding these facilities, however, the effect of the Revised Code on the supply of Pupil Teachers ready to enter the Training

College after their apprenticeship is over, still continues to be felt. The average number of students at Westminster has consequently not been so high as formerly, though the efficiency of the College in all other respects remains the same.

Regulations of Committee of Council not touched on here.—In the sketch thus given of the Wesleyan Training College, the changes in the regulations of the Committee of Council have only been touched upon as showing the bearing which those changes have had upon the constitution and mode of management of the College. The administration of the Education Department is fully detailed elsewhere.

Mr. Arnold's Opinion of College and System.—Mr. Arnold, in his Report to the Committee of Council, 1854–5, reprinted by the Duke of Newcastle's Commission, has given so lucid a view on the subject generally, that it may not be inappropriate, in bringing this account of the Wesleyan Training College to a close, to quote his remarks verbatim:—'I have a few remarks relating to the training of the students in this Institution to make in conclusion. . . The secular instruction here is, no doubt, well and adequately given, and those who conduct the Institution are anxious to perfect their students in it, and are of opinion that the attention which is paid to religious teaching will not affect their success in doing so. . . . But the whole spirit of the proceeding in this Institution, the language held by its promoters, the subjects constantly preferred by the students on which to give their lessons, the tenor of these lessons themselves, the very arrangement and organisation of the Practising Schools, remind the observer that this is not the sole, nor even the chief thing, aimed at. The Wesleyan Education Committee, and the connection on behalf of which they act, put it forth as their first principle that the Week-day Schools should secure the means of religious as well as secular instruction, in such a manner as to make the latter strictly subordinate to the former; and, again, religious teaching is the leading and paramount object in the system of Week-day Schools, which it is the business of the Committee to promote. And, therefore, as religious character is the primary consideration in the selection of the students, it is also the main end regarded in their discipline and training. The daily attendance at morning and evening worship required of every student, their weekly conversations with the Principal on religious subjects, their meetings for prayer among themselves, the supplementary examination-

paper on Scripture doctrines and Scripture History set by the Wesleyan Committee to all candidates examined at their Institution for Government certificates, are all of them so many endeavours towards securing this end. For this end too, the Committee placed the Institution where it is, rather than in a less miserable and necessitous neighbourhood; because, to use the Principal's own words, they did not wish their students to be spoilt in training, and, by a lengthened residence away from the dwellings of the poor, and amongst the attractions of superior life, disinclined and rendered unfit to take the arduous and self-denying duties of School Teachers. They hoped that surrounded, as the students are at Westminster, by the families of the poor, their want of education, with its attendant degradation and misery, would excite their best feelings. A moral end, then, a moral effect to be produced upon the students, was in view even in planting the Institution where it now stands.

'It is right to remember these things when one notices, perhaps, points in the proceedings of the Training College, or of the Practising Schools, which seem unfavourable to the perfection of secular instruction; when a spectator, attending exclusively to this, remarks that the lessons on religious subjects, or which are made to take a religious turn, are too frequent; that the method of the Teacher is too often one of exhortation and lecture, rather than one of searching question and answer—it is right to remember that much of this is done with special aims in view, to produce a special result, both in the Teachers and in the children; that it was because they had these special aims, that the Wesleyan connection, like the Church of England, for the most part withheld their assent from the principle of British Schools.'

57. ROMAN CATHOLIC TRAINING COLLEGES.

Early Want of Trained Teachers.—The universal cry for Teachers, and especially for trained Teachers, was raised simultaneously with the earliest efforts for the creation of an educational system for the English Roman Catholic poor. In the first Report ever written by a Roman Catholic Government Inspector, in 1849, it is stated that the first step towards the attainment of a proper system of education for the poor belonging to this faith, is the establishment of Normal Schools. At the date of that Report no Institution of the kind existed in England. Several were in a flourishing condition in Ireland, conducted chiefly by the clergy, and it was usual, in the early days of the spread of Roman Catholic Schools in England, to obtain a supply of Teachers from the sister island.

First Efforts of the Catholic Poor School Committee.—The 'Catholic Poor School Committee,' however, turned its attention, even during the first few months of its existence, to this deficiency, being reminded of it from all quarters by the constant applications for Teachers. As a preliminary step, five females were placed in training with the 'Community of the Holy Child Jesus,' then settled at Derby, but shortly after removed to Hastings. It was arranged that these were to remain for two and a half years, at a cost of 25*l.* per annum each, defrayed by the Poor School Committee. Seven, afterwards increased to twelve, young men were sent on somewhat similar terms to the Ploërmel Establishment in Brittany, to be trained under the care of the Abbé de la Mennais. In the following year six young women were placed in training at St. Ann's House, Birmingham; and, in the meantime, active measures were adopted to raise funds for the formation of a more systematic method of training in this country.

Commencement of Hammersmith College.—This was accomplished in the following year by the purchase of a site at Hammersmith, and the adaptation of Brook Green House to the purposes of a Male Training Brotherhood, with accommodation for forty residents, including the Brothers engaged in teaching, and the students. A practising school for about 100 boys was built on the adjacent site, and, with the exception of a grant of 1,676*l.* from the Committee of Council, the whole cost, amounting to some 8,000*l.*, was borne by a few Roman Catholic gentlemen.

Hammersmith limited to 'The Religious.'—The students from Ploërmel were removed, during the year, to St. Mary's Brotherhood, as the Hammersmith Training College was called, and the Institution, which was limited to 'the religious,' was based on the mode of training adopted at that College, and was placed under the management of the Rev. J. M. Glenie, B.A., Principal.

Regulations for the Admission of Students.—The regulations for admission were as follows:—

1. All candidates were to be between the ages of eighteen and twenty-three years.

2. One sum of 25*l.* was to be paid on entering, though cases of partial or entire exemption from this payment were to be considered by the Principal.

3. The elements of a good English education were indispensably necessary.

4. A certificate as to past and present health, from a medical man, was required.

5. A recommendation from one or more of those under whom the candidate had received instruction, had to be sent in, together with a certificate of conduct and character from the parish priest.

Not so much need for a Female College.—A Female Training College was not so soon established, nor indeed was it so urgently required. Educated ladies could often be found to undertake the work of instructing the poor. The nuns at Nottingham, Derby, and other places were also willing to assist; besides which, the very efficient education given to girls in schools attached to convents, rendered it not so difficult to find eligible candidates to take duty in new Female Schools.

The Results Insufficient—Difficulty to find Students.—The formation of the Training College at Hammersmith, and the above

arrangements with regard to Female Teachers, though necessarily great advantages, did not overcome the difficulty which the Catholic Poor School Committee had in supplying Teachers. In 1854, they quote Mr. Stokes' Report, which says, 'The Manager of a school desirous to secure the services of an able Master, finds himself at a total loss.' The action of the Training College itself, with all its advantages of staff and educational appliances, was thwarted for the first three years of its existence, by the extreme difficulty of obtaining suitable young persons to train. The Committee state, that it was beyond the power of the Principal to find candidates, duly qualified at once by previous intellectual culture and by religious vocation, to enter the Brotherhood for the future work of teaching.

Determination to establish two Lay Colleges.—The rules of the Hammersmith Institution were somewhat more strict than those of an ordinary Training College, the candidates for admission being required to become members of the Brotherhood, and to conform to its religious life and rule on their becoming inmates. Instances of young men undertaking this for the prospects open to them on becoming Schoolmasters were so rare, that it was determined in the year 1854 to found two regular Training Colleges for *Lay* Teachers, in contradistinction to the religious Brotherhood at Hammersmith. One of these was to be for Masters, the other for Mistresses. The material for feeding these Lay Colleges, it was thought, would be more attainable; particularly as a number of Pupil Teachers were at this period about completing their apprenticeship and becoming fit to enter upon the more systematic course of training. It was evident from the Hammersmith experiment, that the religious class could not be found in sufficient numbers to supply a tithe of the existing schools, to say nothing of new ones which were daily springing up. The College itself could not be filled with suitable persons, and even if it had been it could only send out annually twelve qualified Teachers. The practical effect therefore was that the schools were supplied with Teachers who had neither the advantage of training, nor the benefits of the religious system.

Step taken from Necessity, not Choice.—It was absolutely necessary, under these circumstances, to take some other steps, and, as stated by the Roman Catholic Committee, 'The real question is not what we would desire, but what we actually are able to do; and it would seem far from prudent to abandon any safe remedial

measure because it falls short of the more perfect result which we would all alike desire to obtain.' By promoters of Roman Catholic education, it was, and is still, believed that there are great advantages in having 'the religious' as School Teachers, and that it would be much to the benefit of the schools if they were all conducted by a member of one of the Brotherhoods. The determination, therefore, to educate a number of Lay Teachers was not come to without mature consideration, and only as an imperfect means of supplying an urgent want.

Liverpool and St. Leonard's Female Colleges.—Every effort was accordingly made in 1855, in order to supply Male and Female Lay Training Colleges, and with fair success. Two, for young women, were in working order before the end of the year; the one at Liverpool, and the other at St. Leonard's-on-Sea. Both of these Institutions had been religious houses, and were placed at the disposal of the Committee, for the purpose of training females, by the respective communities to whom they belonged. By this means ample accommodation was secured for about one hundred female students within a few months, and that, too, without any cost to the Central Committee, or to the Catholic body.

Greater Difficulty to Establish Male College.—The Male Training College, however, was not so easily created. In the first place, no houses devoted to primary education existed for men, and consequently there was no community in a position to offer its buildings, as had been done for the Female Colleges. The Catholic Committee accordingly determined to build a school on part of the three acres occupied by their Religious Training College at Hammersmith. It was proposed to provide accommodation for fifty pupils, so that, with the twenty religious, there would be provision for seventy students, lay and religious, in all. To do this a sum of 8,000*l.* had to be raised, towards which 2,500*l.* was granted by the Committee of Council. The Poor School Committee, and a few other Roman Catholics, raised a like amount in 1855, but the work was somewhat retarded by the want of the remainder, for which a special appeal was put forth.

Completion of Colleges.—The following year witnessed the completion of ample Training School accommodation for the supply of Roman Catholic Teachers. The Committee reported that

they had now room for 200 pupils; as the Liverpool and St. Leonard's Female Institutions with provision for 130, and the buildings at Hammersmith, contiguous to the Brotherhood, for 70, were by this time in working order.

Hope of Eventually having 'The Religious' as Teachers.—The Roman Catholic Committee, though congratulating their body on this success, enunciated strongly their conviction that their ultimate desire and aim would be the placing of 'the religious' in all cases as trainers of the young. These Colleges for lay pupils were invariably conducted by the religious; and it was hoped that the influence of their example at the Female Colleges and at Hammersmith, coupled as it was with so excellent a staff of religious teachers, would act beneficially on the lay members of the various Colleges.

Colleges not Confined to Pupil Teachers.—At these Colleges not only were Pupil Teachers admitted, after the expiration of their apprenticeship, but any who felt a desire to enter on the vocation of teaching. These were admitted for one, two, or three years at a moderate fee. Some of them competed for and obtained Scholarships at the Government Christmas Examinations, and were thus enabled to continue for the ensuing year without cost to themselves.

Opinion of Poor School Committee.—In concluding the remarks on the operations for the year 1856, the Catholic Poor School Committee state, 'These advantages are very great, and as new as they are great; of themselves they indicate a fresh epoch in the Catholic History in England.'

Continued Difficulty to find Male Students.—The difficulty of finding a sufficient number of Male Students for Lay Teachers appears, even after the completion of the Hammersmith College, to have continued. This was not the case with the Female Students, for in 1858 the Female Training Colleges were full, whereas only half the accomodation at the Male College was taken advantage of. The results also of the Government examination of the females were considerably better than those of the males.

Regulations to Promote Religious Training.—The same rule which was adopted in the Roman Catholic Poor Schools, concerning religious instruction, has also from the first been introduced into the Lay Training Colleges. Fearing that, in conse-

quence of the éclat arising from a Government examination, an undue preponderance should be given to the secular subjects, as religion in no way entered into the programme, a careful scheme of religious examination was drawn out by the Roman Catholic Church, and conducted under the superintendence of the Bishops. The somewhat doubtful expedient of giving prizes, and these in money or medals, for religious knowledge, was also adopted.

Discouraging Condition of Male College.—The scarcity of Male Pupil Teachers in 1860, appears to have given the Committee not a little uneasiness. Only sixteen went into the examination for admission to the Training College, out of about fifty whose apprenticeships ceased that year; of these, but eight succeeded in passing at the examination. Six outsiders who attempted to pass failed. The Training College at Hammersmith began the new year with only twenty-nine scholars; twenty-two being of the second year, and seven of the first, although it had accommodation for seventy; 'a result every way most discouraging to those who have at heart a due supply of well-trained Masters for our schools.'

Continued Deficiency of Male Students.—The difficulties of supplying good Masters for the Roman Catholic Schools seem indeed to have increased, rather than diminished, with the energetic efforts of the Poor School Committee. In 1861 the Rev. J. B. Rowe was appointed Principal at Hammersmith, and the Commitee, feeling that everything depended on the success of the Institution, left no means untried to effect its good object. The supply, however, of the Male Pupil Teachers was deficient, both in quality and in quantity. They were of an inferior class to that of the female students, and the labour expended on them was consequently less satisfactory, and at the same time more arduous. In 1861, it appears that of 355 teachers engaged in Roman Catholic Schools, 46 had been trained at Hammersmith; 117 at Liverpool; and 60 at St. Leonard's; making a total of 223, whose training, the Committee stated, was entirely owing to the Government assistance.

Revised Code—Closing of St. Leonard's College—Efforts to obtain Students.—The Revised Code, which completely changed the mode of payment to the Training Colleges, had several important effects on those of the Roman Catholic community. In the first

place, the Institution at St. Leonard's-on-Sea ceased to be under Government inspection, and the two Female Colleges were thus merged into one. The payments to the Training Colleges, subject to certain limitations, depended entirely for the future on the number of Teachers trained in them who continued to teach for two years in Poor Schools. This somewhat diminished the aid from the Government Grant in some instances, though in others, as at Hammersmith, this was not the case. The Committee estimated that the Education Department grants would, perhaps, be slightly increased under the new plan, if the supply of pupils could only be maintained. They accordingly urged on all School Managers to assist them—

1st. By a careful selection of fit youths for apprenticeship as Pupil Teachers.

2nd. By exercising supervision to secure them a proper amount of instruction during their apprenticeship.

3rd. By employing only Certificated Teachers, and changing them as seldom as possible.

Insufficient Payment to Teachers cause of Scarcity.—The Committee in this year's Report frankly acknowledged that the future of the Male Training College entirely depended on the supply of candidates, and the efforts made by Managers to secure Teachers a fair remuneration for their labour, after they had been trained. It appears probable that this insufficient remuneration was really the whole difficulty. In many cases the payment from all sources was inferior to that of a skilled artisan; and as the training involved a seven years' course of study, during which the pupil was more or less a burden on his family, it seemed reasonable that persons should hesitate to enter upon an employment with such doubtful prospects.

Crisis of Male College—Renewed Efforts to supply Students.—The following year, 1865, the state of the College at Hammersmith appears to have been at its worst. The Committee reported that 'the present prospects are more threatening, owing entirely to the fact that so few young men show any desire to embrace the calling of Teachers.' In this difficulty the Bishops requested the Roman Catholic Committee to frame suggestions on the subject. This they did, and proposed that each Bishop should hold himself responsible to send up a certain number of students, either one, two, three, or four, according to the size of his diocese; and that 5*l.* should be paid to each Master bringing up

a Pupil Teacher who entered the Male Training College and became himself a Teacher. This payment was afterwards increased to 10*l.*, for those who passed in the first division at the admission examination.

Preparatory Class—Personal Allowances to Students.—A preparatory class was also started to enable young lads to qualify for admission to the Training College; and in 1866 this was fairly successful, though it had been tried on two previous occasions without any result. Small personal allowances of 6*l.* and 4*l.*, according to the class of success, were offered to students as an assistance to them while at College. Their travelling expenses were also paid, as a further encouragement for them to come up to the examination for admission to the Training College.

Success of these Measures.—These decided and practical steps of the Poor School Committee appear to have proved eminently successful. The number of students during the last three years has rapidly increased, so that last year the accommodation was only sufficient for the supply, a state of success which the College had not known since its foundation.

Science at Liverpool—Female College.—The year 1870 was the first in which the authorities of the Female Training College at Liverpool arranged a systematic course of Science Teaching under the Science and Art Department. In the May of this year 62 female students presented themselves in Physical Geography, and the result may be judged from the fact, that one obtained 1st class, eight 2nd class in the Advanced, and six 1st class and forty-one 2nd class in the Elementary Examination. The number of students trained for two years and sent out from the Liverpool Training College during 14 years, that is, between January 1856 and January 1870, was 356, of whom 267 were actually engaged in teaching Elementary Schools in Great Britain at the latter date. In the results which it has obtained this College has not been surpassed by any under the Inspection of the Privy Council.

Special Difficulties of Roman Catholics.—The training system of the Roman Catholic Church in England, as has been seen in the course of these remarks, had to contend with a serious difficulty. As a body, the class of persons belonging to the communion are of the poorest. With the exception of the few

in the highest ranks, there is but a small proportion of the educated among them. No middle class of small tradesmen, superior artisans, and the like, exists in sufficient numbers to supply the wants of the Male Training School. The consequence has been, and still is, that many enter who are not advanced enough to benefit by the instruction to the full extent. With the Female Schools this evil has not been felt to the same extent. Ladies of a superior rank are more readily found, particularly in the Roman Catholic Church, to devote their energies to the poor; and the obvious necessity of a supply of Mistresses induced a number to enter on the work of teaching, frequently as a labour of love, and as a religious duty.

Conclusion.—In the future work of this branch of the educational system, it is evident that the worst struggles in supplying material to the Male Training College, which existed at its formation and for so many years after, will not again arise. By pursuing the liberal policy recently adopted, continued success may be expected in the Hammersmith Institution, while the supply of Female Teachers must be looked upon at the present time as satisfactory. The requirements for the extension of schools sufficient to educate all Roman Catholics, will, no doubt, ere long lead to a considerable extension of the Training System based on the experiences of the past.

58. CONGREGATIONAL TRAINING COLLEGE.

Joint Working with British Society.—The Congregational body has always exhibited a special interest in the extension of popular education. Sympathising with the unsectarian views of Robert Lancaster, they united with other religious denominations in the establishment of the British and Foreign School Society; and the schools connected with their churches were for many years supplied with Teachers from the British Training College in the Borough Road. At the formation of the Congregational Board of Education in 1843, arrangements were made with the Committee of the British and Foreign School Society, to place in their Training Institution young persons of whose religious character and general qualifications they approved. These candidates, though necessarily conforming to the rules of the College, were specially under the superintendence of the Congregational Board of Education; and in all matters of instruction, or suggested improvements, the British Society stated that they would endeavour, as far as possible, to carry out the wishes of their fellow-workers. One male and six female students were, in accordance with this plan, sent to the Borough Road Institution, and passed through the customary course of instruction, which was then limited to twelve months.

Separation on Account of British Society Receiving Public Grants.—At the Annual Meeting of the British and Foreign School Society in May 1845, it was announced 'that the Committee had accepted a grant of 750*l.* for the Normal School, from the Committee of Council on Education, which grant is to be renewed annually, subject to the revision of the Council.' The Board of Education gave to this announcement their careful consideration; especially bearing in mind the fact, that seven pupils in connection with them were in training in a Normal

School now to be sustained in part by a grant from the Government. The following resolutions were passed unanimously at a meeting of the Board specially summoned, and held May 12 :—

'1. That this Board has heard with deep regret, that the Committee of the British and Foreign School Society has received a grant from the Committee of Council on Education, of the sum of 750*l.*, and to be renewed annually, subject to the revision of the Council; this Board cannot be reconciled to such grant, although the Committee of Council has yielded all control over its expenditure: a concession on the part of Government which this Board deems to be wrong in principle, and liable in many Institutions to the most serious abuses.

'2. That the difficulty in which the Board is placed be respectfully represented to the Committee of the British and Foreign School Society, and that there be transmitted a copy of the following resolution, being the fourth, unanimously passed by the Conference on Education, held in the Congregational Library, December 13, 1843, in which is embodied the unchanged principle of Congregationalists, the wisdom, truth, and justice of such principle having been again illustrated and confirmed by the recent proceedings of the Legislature.

'3. That this meeting, utterly repudiating, on the strongest grounds of Scripture and conscience, the receipt of money raised by taxation, and granted by Government for sustaining the Christian religion, feels bound to apply this principle no less to the work of religious education; and considering that the education given by the Congregational Churches must be religious education, advises most respectfully, but most earnestly, that no Government aid be received by them for schools established in their own connection, and that all funds confided to the disposal of the Central Committee in aid of schools, be granted only to schools sustained entirely by voluntary contributions.'

Determination of the Congregationalists.—The action of the British and Foreign School Society placed the Congregational Board in considerable difficulty, as they felt that under the circumstances of their formation, and according to their professed principles of action, it was impossible to continue using the British Normal School for their own pupils in training. Finding themselves in this position, nothing remained for the Congregationalists but to form independent Training Institutions for supplying Teachers for their own schools.

Commencement of Welsh Training School.—In April 1845, a Conference of Independents, Calvinistic Methodists, Wesleyans, and Baptists was convened by the Board, and held at Llandovery, South Wales. It was here resolved that a Normal School for Wales should be forthwith established for the training of Teachers expressly for the Principality. This resulted in the formation of an Institution situated in Brecon, of which the Rev. Evan Davies, M.A. was Principal. It had accommodation for twenty-eight male students, and towards its maintenance the Congregational Board largely contributed.

Commencement of Rotherhithe Female School.—In 1846 an Institution was commenced at Rotherhithe for twelve female students, superintended by Miss Whitmore, who had previously spent twelve months at the Borough Road School under the auspices of the Congregational Board. The course of training was to extend over a period of twelve months, the object contemplated being to give instruction in such branches of knowledge as were necessary for persons to be acquainted with before they were appointed to be the teachers of others. It was also proposed that if matters could be adjusted relative to the Government grant, those who had spent a year at Rotherhithe might attend for two or three months at the Borough Road Practising Schools. This result not having been attained, the Herold's School, Rotherhithe, was adopted as a Practising School.

Commencement of Male Training College—Course of Instruction.—In 1849 a second Training School was formed for seventeen young men, in Liverpool Street, London, under the direction of the Rev. W. J. Unwin, M.A. The course of training at all these Institutions at this time was not to be less than one year. The subjects of instruction were very similar to those included in the curriculum of most of the Training Colleges under the Committee of Council, with the addition that considerable attention was given from the first to the teaching of Singing and Drawing to all the students. The term of training was divided into three sessions; the students paid 12*l.* per annum towards the expense of their instruction, board, and lodging; they purchased their own Text Books, and were charged five shillings for medical advice. All who entered the Colleges were expected to devote themselves to teaching as their future vocation, unless

some very satisfactory cause should afterwards arise to prevent them from so doing.

Proposal to Combine Male and Female Colleges at Homerton.—The work of training Teachers thus conducted on a small scale in two places in London, was simply preparatory to future operations. As the union of three of the Colleges for the education of Ministers was in contemplation, it was thought probable that a suitable building would be in a short time available. In 1851, the College at Homerton was purchased. This building, which had for so many years been associated with the training of Ministers, was in every way suited for the purpose of a Training College for Teachers of Congregational Schools. It was consequently not unnatural for the Board to determine to use every means to purchase these premises, and to convert them into a combined Training College for male and female teachers, particularly as their present owners were deeply interested in, and liberal supporters of, the Congregational Board of Education.

Opening of Homerton College.—After a considerable effort this was accomplished, at a cost of 12,000*l.*, a sum raised entirely by the Congregational body for the purchase, alteration, and fitting up of the Institution, together with the building on part of the site of large model schools, capable of accommodating nearly 1,000 children. The College, in its new character as a Training Institution for Teachers, was opened on April 20, 1852, with nine male students from Liverpool Street, and the same number of females from Rotherhithe. The number soon increased to twenty-one males, and twenty-eight females, which was about as many as the premises could conveniently accommodate.

Advantages of Combination.—The advantages secured by this arrangement were numerous. The combined staff of Teachers was rendered more efficient, particularly as in several branches of study, as well as in various lectures, such as those on Music, both male and female pupils attended together; a plan which effected a considerable saving of teaching power. Besides this, the housekeeping expenses, as compared with the two small establishments, were much reduced.

Course of Instruction.—The instruction at the College, as laid down in the early regulations, were to a large extent based on the arrangements of the Battersea Training College, which for some time was under the special direction of Sir J. Kay Shuttle-

worth, Bart., and Mr. E. C. Tufnell. The subjects taught were as follows:—Religion, Scripture Geography and History, General Geography and History, Arithmetic and Algebra, English Grammar and Etymology, Writing, Geometry, Mensuration and Trigonometry, Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, Latin, Greek, and French, Drawing, Vocal Music, and the Theory and Practice of Teaching. For the female students, Plain Needlework and Knitting were added to the list. The system of teaching in the Model Schools embodied the principal features of that generally known as the 'Training System' pursued by Mr. David Stow at Glasgow, on which plan also the Wesleyan Training College was founded. Some slight modifications have, however, been introduced with success by the Principal, Dr. Unwin.

Period of Training One Year—Necessity for Extending this.—The period of training, which at the time when the Board commenced its operations was not to be less than one year, was felt to be inadequate for the thorough instruction of the pupils. The difficulty, however, of increasing it, appeared to be almost insuperable. This arose from the fact, that a large part of the cost of training fell on the students themselves, who, during this time, could not earn anything towards their support. It was felt, however, that an extension of the time would ere long become imperative, in order to secure the required improvement in Teachers of Elementary Schools, To compensate for the limited period of special training, the Board urged the importance of care in selecting suitable persons for the Training College; in no case, it was directed, should any one be sent from the Provincial Schools, to take advantage of the Institution, who had not undergone a course of preparatory study.

Independent Examination.—A systematic examination by professional examiners, unconnected with the College, was kept up by the Board. From the reports published it is shown that the method of teaching was both efficient and thorough. This independent supervision to a certain extent made up for the loss of the Government Inspection, a benefit which kindred Institutions enjoyed.

Diplomas.—Diplomas were granted to those pupils whose general character, both for diligence and moral conduct, was considered unexceptionable, and whose attainments and skill in teaching warranted the expectation of future success.

Certificates of Merit.—Certificates of Merit might be competed for by those who had obtained the Diploma. These certificates were granted in Mathematics, Languages, Drawing, and Vocal Music. In Mathematics male students had to show a knowledge of Algebra up to Quadratic Equations; in Euclid the first three and the sixth books; and in Plane Geometry as far as the Solution of Plane Triangles. For females a certificate was granted for General Mathematics, including the Solution of Simple Equations. In languages the male students were required to translate correctly from two languages, and the females from one, either French, Latin, or Greek, in order to obtain this distinction.

Success of the Mixed College.—The combination of the two Training Institutions for male and female students, though necessarily requiring a greater amount of personal and careful supervision, inasmuch, as before stated, several of the subjects of instruction were given to a mixed class, was found to answer extremely well. In the Report for 1855 the Board states that 'The plan obviously involved a considerable diminution of the cost of instruction, and valuable facilities for the more efficient teaching of several important subjects; but it necessarily created much anxiety, and demanded the exercise of a vigilant superintendence. Experience, however, has furnished no cause for hesitancy as to its propriety, but, on the contrary, abundant grounds for satisfaction.'

Difficulty of Finding Students to Train.—The importance of the Ministers, in the various parts of the country, co-operating with the Board of Education in selecting suitable persons to enter the Homerton Training College, is repeatedly adverted to in the Annual Reports. The difficulty of supplying pupils for training in sufficient number, indeed, seems to have given even more trouble to the Congregationalists than to the Roman Catholics. The absence of any system corresponding to that of Pupil Teachers rendered the matter more troublesome to this body than to those receiving State aid. Few could be induced to qualify as Teachers when they had to pay for their training, when the condition was imposed that the public grants should not be received, and when the whole income depended on the children's pence and voluntary subscriptions.

Continued Declining of State Aid.—The work of the College continued without intermission, and with hardly any change, for the next ten years. The number of pupils varied from year to year, though they were rarely sufficient for the accommodation provided. The Reports usually repeat the assertion that the Board was convinced of the correctness of the principle of refusing all State aid; and it is evident that every effort was made to carry on the work on the voluntary system, according to the original intention of the Congregationalists when the Education Board was founded.

The College accepts Public Aid.—In 1867, however, the propriety of altering the constitution of the Congregational Board of Education came under discussion. At a meeting of the Board on June 17, 1868, it was unanimously resolved, 'That this Board having maturely considered its present position in consequence of the withdrawal of the Government Bill, and the announcement by his Grace the Duke of Marlborough to Mr. S. Morley and Dr. Unwin, that a new Minute to meet the concessions asked by the Board could not in present circumstances be issued, though the general assent of all parties left no doubt as to their adoption in any future legislation; and having had their attention drawn to the arrangement adopted in 1847, by which "Inspectors are authorised to report respecting the secular instruction only," decides to apply to the Committee of Privy Council on Education, that the Training Institution at Homerton, and the Schools of Congregationalists, may, under this precedent, participate in the Parliamentary Grant.'

Instruction now Similar to other Colleges.—The course of instruction at the College has now been put under the regulations of the Committee of Council on Education, and is at the present moment practically identical with that of other Training Colleges.

Mr. Arnold's Report.—In October 1868, Mr. Matthew Arnold, her Majesty's Inspector, officially visited for the first time the Homerton College. He reported that the past management of the Institution appeared to him to have been such as to warrant the Committee of Council in admitting to examination the former students, without requiring the two previous inspections to which they would in strictness have had to submit before being eligible for their certificates.

Increase of Students in Training.—The work of the Board was necessarily restricted while the changes referred to were in progress; but these being effected, in 1869 14 candidates were admitted; in 1870 this number was increased to 43; and in future 50 students, the full number which the College will accommodate, will be prepared for the work of primary instruction.

Present Distinctive Feature.—The feature of the Congregational Training College is, that it is intended to provide teachers for schools in which the teaching is Evangelical, but free from any sectarian bias. The schools to which it is thus related, says Mr. Arnold, 'are unlike Church of England Schools or the Wesleyan Schools, in that they are not merely for Anglicans or for Wesleyans, but for those who hold "Evangelical views of Religion." They are unlike the schools of the British and Foreign School Society, because, being for those who hold "Evangelical views of Religion," they exclude Socinians and Roman Catholics. The distinction is remarkable, because the denomination thus, in fact, adopted is identical with the denomination common to all the State-aided Protestant Schools of Germany, and under which all bodies of Protestant Christians in that country unite. State-aided Schools in Germany are divided into Evangelical Schools and Catholic Schools; and, in my opinion, this is the very best division which can be adopted, recognising essential differences and effacing non-essential; and it is, I think, one which, though it might be distasteful to certain parties and individuals, would on the whole recommend itself, if it could be followed, to the feelings and judgment of the people of this country.'

Conclusion.—The governing body, though great credit is due to them for attempting in every way to carry out their opinions of the advantages of a voluntary system, have had the wisdom to see that the course of events has proved the necessity of State aid in educating the masses of the poorer population. It may fairly be anticipated that the energy which had enabled the Institution to continue so long while self-supporting may secure it redoubled success under its present circumstances.

59. HOME AND COLONIAL TRAINING COLLEGE.

Formed to Improve Infant Schools.—The Training College, under the direction of the Home and Colonial School Society, in the Gray's Inn Road, requires to be specially noticed on account of its important action in connection with Infant Schools, and subsequently, with schools for older children. The principal cause which led to the formation of what was at first called the Home and Colonial Infant School Society, on February 23, 1836, was the very unsatisfactory condition of Infant Schools, owing to the Teachers being entirely untrained. This is implied from the first rules that were issued, which announced that the intention of the Society was 'the improvement and extension of Infant Schools on Christian principles, not only at home and in the colonies, but also in every part of the world.'

First Plan of Operations.—The College was opened on June 1, 1836, when the Society's programme of work was divided into four branches, viz.:

1. The qualifying of young persons, 'apt to teach,' as Infant School Masters and Mistresses.

2. The affording of the means of improvement to existing Teachers, and the recommending of them to Infant Schools.

3. The appointing of Inspectors to visit schools, and places where schools might with advantage be established.

4. The circulation of information on Infant Schools, and the publication of specimen lessons, &c. To carry out this programme young women were received for a few months' training, and afterwards recommended to localities applying for their services. Local Infant Schools, also, were encouraged to send up any Teacher they might select, for her to undergo the course adopted. The Inspector visited those places desiring his services, provided they were in union with the Society, subscribed *2l. 2s.*

per annum to its funds, and were willing to defray the necessary travelling expenses.

Religious Tolerance—Selection of Inmates.—The Society was in connection with the Church of England, which had not at this time taken much notice of Infant Schools, so that the schools of this description which did exist were almost entirely conducted by Nonconformists. From the first, however, great religious freedom was allowed, and no exclusiveness permitted. The rule on this point stated that 'the Society will educate Masters and Mistresses of different religious denominations, if holding the fundamental truths of the Bible.' In the selection of persons to enter the Training School, great care was bestowed. During the first year, no fewer than 51 out of 120 applicants were declined as unfit.

Establishment of Model School.—During the first year of the Society's existence, considerable difficulty was experienced from its possessing no Infant School at which the Teachers might practise. Their instruction was consequently more or less theoretical, and only extended to their giving occasionally a practical lesson at some neighbouring school. The difficulty, however, was removed in the next year by the establishment of a Model Infant School, which was very soon filled with about 150 little children. This was commenced on the same site on which the present Institution is now conducted in Gray's Inn Road. Attached to these premises were two houses for the accommodation of pupils during the time they remained at the Institution, for the purpose of undergoing the course of instruction. One was arranged for twenty-one females, and the other for five married couples.*

Time of Training too Short.—The training at this period extended over twelve weeks, and each person was required to pay a sum of 8*s.* per week. The Committee of the Society much regretted that the time was so short, and the fee so high, but as the only sources of income were derived from subscriptions and the payments by inmates, it was found impossible to alter it. They looked forward, however, to being able, by greater liberality on the part of the public, to reduce the weekly payment to 5*s.* or 6*s.*, and so render it possible for the candidates to remain

* The training of Masters as Infant School Teachers was given up four or five years after the commencement of the operations of the Society.

longer without putting them to a very severe pecuniary loss. In 1838 the period was extended to fifteen weeks.

Programme of Studies.—The following was the programme of studies then pursued at the Training College:

1. Religious instruction, in which the leading truths of the Word of God were inculcated.

2. Instruction in Natural History, in which the adaptation of the several organs of each familiar animal to its peculiar habits was pointed out.

3. Instruction in the first rules of Arithmetic, Elementary Geography, and Singing, together with the drawing of simple geometrical forms.

4. Explanation of the principles on which education should be based, together with general information on every-day pursuits. This was particularly inculcated by means of pictures, specially published by the Society for this purpose, describing trades, agricultural pursuits, simple mechanical arrangements, and other familiar matters.

Infant School Publications.—The Home and Colonial Infant School Society was the means, particularly during the first few years of its existence, of publishing several important works, bearing on Infant School Training. Amongst these were 'Practical Remarks on Infant Education,' a little book which had an extensive circulation; three volumes of Model Lessons, subsequently brought into an Infant School Manual in two volumes; a volume on religious instruction, and other important works. Several series of Natural History and Scripture Prints, which are still familiar to all frequenters of Infant Schools, also emanated from this Society.

Nursery Governesses.—Included in the original programme was the establishment of a system for the teaching of Nursery Governesses. It was proposed that suitable persons should be received for a fixed payment per week, taught the Infant School system, and then recommended to the families of subscribers. This excellent idea however, though fairly successful, has not been carried out so fully as was originally intended.

Difference between Model School and Mr. Stow's System.—The difference which existed between the plan of teaching pursued at the Gray's Inn Road School, and the celebrated Normal School at Glasgow under Mr. Stow, is thus described in the third Report

of the 'Home and Colonial Infant School Society,' published in 1839, which states:—'In the Model School, it is the practice to give less actual information—the children are rather called on by questions to exercise their own faculties, with a view to strengthen them. The plan pursued at Glasgow, of giving children the idea, and leaving them to supply in the sentence the leading words which express it (called the elliptical plan) is not used, except at the summing up or close of a lesson, to aid in impressing the whole consecutively on the memory. The more decided aim kept in view is, through the means of visible objects and questions, to cultivate the senses of the children, and to give a practical tendency to all they acquire—thus they are led to observe forms, and the different positions and dimensions of lines; this knowledge, as soon as acquired, is made practical by the Master, who calls on the children to decide upon the position of all the lines they see in the room, their relative size, which is the longest, their positive size, how many feet, inches, &c.'

Assistance to Local Schools.—The pecuniary assistance afforded by the Society to Local Schools has never been great. The funds at its disposal have indeed not been more than sufficient to meet the wants at the Central Schools, though in 1839 about 40*l.* was expended in this way.

Necessity for Inspection.—The great desirability of some description of outside inspection of Infant Schools was dwelt upon by the Society as early as 1839. The Report for that year stated, that work was only half done when a Teacher was sent to a school, and left to herself. She required constant advice and encouragement, such as could be given to the greatest advantage by a well arranged system of inspection. The great difficulty in a private body carrying this out, was obtaining the requisite funds to defray the heavy expenses, and consequently the Society could only assist those schools situated in the neighbourhood of London.

Definition of Religious Teaching.—In 1841 a somewhat exclusive interpretation was put upon one of the fundamental rules of the Society. This was by more accurately defining the Christian principles on which the Institution was to be conducted. It was determined that the religious teaching was to be such as is 'set forth and embodied in the Doctrinal Articles of the Church of England.' In spite of this regulation, however, the College con-

tinued to be attended by pupils of all denominations, who were allowed every opportunity of frequenting whatever place of worship they might think proper.

Encouragement for Students Remaining Longer.—An effort was made this same year to induce pupils to remain for a longer period at the Training College. It was decided that any promising Teacher approved by the Committee, and who had paid 6*l.* for an attendance of fifteen weeks, might be allowed for an additional sum of 3*l.* to continue at the Institution, until she had completed a period of six months' training. Teachers thus educated were to have the preference of a recommendation to those Infant Schools where the highest salaries were given. In the following year, the course for all was extended to twenty weeks, at a somewhat reduced fee. The expense, however, involved by this excellent measure, for some time acted as a serious drawback to persons entering the College.

Subjects of Instruction.—The subjects undertaken in the course of instruction in 1842 were as follows, viz.: Scripture Instruction; Reading and Elocution; Writing; Elementary Drawing; Grammar; Form; Natural History; Geography, especially that of the Bible; Singing; Lessons on Objects, and Pictures of Objects; Principles of Education; Practice of the Schoolroom, or Plans of Teaching and Government; and Physical Exercises. The practical work in addition to the above, through which each Teacher was required to pass before considered to have had a full training, was divided as follows:

1. Probationary Exercises.
2. Witnessing others give lessons.
3. Taking charge first of classes, and afterwards of galleries of children.
4. Giving an opinion on, or criticising the lessons of, other Teachers.
5. Giving lessons publicly.
6. Attending in the Model Schools, and assisting the Master and Mistress.
7. Having temporary charge of small schools under inspection.

Enlargement of Field of Operation.—The Society's field of operation became somewhat enlarged in 1845, when its title was changed to that of the Home and Colonial Infant *and Juvenile* School Society. By this it was intended so to frame its system

of training as to qualify persons to meet the demand for Teachers, not only able to conduct an Infant School, but also competent to carry on the instruction of children to the age of eight or ten years. Three years later, a further change took place, and from that time the Society has been known as the Home and Colonial School Society, and has extended its operations, with the aid of the Government, to the training of Teachers of Elementary Schools for children of all ages. The special provision for training Infant School Teachers is, however, still continued.

Commencement of State Aid.—The question of receiving State aid was very carefully considered by the Society in 1846–7, and after a lengthy correspondence it was decided to enlarge the Institution, and, as an experiment, to commence by training a class of thirty under the Government Minutes. The inducement which seems to have weighed more than any other in settling the determination of the Society, was the fact that a much more lengthened course of training would be secured to the pupils by the pecuniary assistance thus received from Government.

Increase in Pupils under State Regulations.—For some time no little difficulty appears to have existed in inducing pupils to enter this class. The result of the first examination by the Committee of Council, however (when eight out of ten of the candidates obtained certificates), was considered so satisfactory, that in the following year the number of pupils rose to fifty. This success was so far maintained that in 1851 the Committee determined in future not to recommend any pupils to Local Schools, for whose proficiency they were to any extent considered responsible, unless they had been trained for at least twelve months. The Institution, however, continued to receive for a course of six months' study persons who were sent by patrons from provincial places, and whose duties prevented them from remaining for a longer period at the College.

Opinion on Government Changes.—The Society earnestly remonstrated against the regulations introduced in 1853, changing the mode of payments on account of students in training. At the same time the rule which required these students, if under twenty-one years of age, to attend for two years at the College, was considered a great advantage. The system also which was adopted later, of granting certificates to Infant Mistresses, under the Minute of April, 1854, gave great satisfaction to the

Managers of the Home and Colonial School Society. By this only one year's training was necessary to qualify for the Government grants, and to those who were successful in a theoretical examination as well as in the practical work of teaching an Infant School before Her Majesty's Inspector, certificates were to be awarded. Some little dissatisfaction was occasioned by the result of the first year's examination under this system by Mr. Cook and Mr. Tufnell. The strictness, however, seems to have had no serious effect, for the number of young persons who entered this section of the Institution gradually increased.

Recent Work of College not Confined to those under Government Rules.—Since 1854, the Home and Colonial Training College has been subject, to a great extent, to the regulations of the Committee of Council, and has varied but little from that of other similar Institutions. The agitation against the Revised Code met with the approval of the Society, as it was considered that it would tend to check the development of Infant Schools. Though becoming to a very great extent an ordinary Institution for the training of Mistresses for Elementary Schools, the main feature has been maintained, namely, that of developing and improving the system of Infant and Juvenile Education. The Society has, moreover, always continued to devote a portion of its efforts to the training of persons not under the Government Minutes. Thus last year seven Teachers, twenty-two young persons preparing to pass the examination for scholarships, three Teachers engaged for schools, seven Teachers recommended as assistants, and nineteen Governesses for females and private schools were all being educated independently of State aid.

Model School—Kindergarten—Other Works of Society.—The excellent Model Infant School established by the Society is fully described in another part of this volume (vide Infant Schools), where an account is also given of the Kindergarten exercises. The numerous operations which are carried on by the Society, both at home and abroad, have not been dwelt upon, as they barely come within the scope of the present subject, though they are intimately connected with the progress of the Institution. The College contains a larger number of female pupils than any in the kingdom. According to last year's Report 140 students were undergoing instruction under the Education Department Minutes, and seventy-seven were being trained privately without that assistance.

Importance of Infant Schools.—Looking at the condition of education in the country at the present time, and considering the need which parents of the working classes have for all the pecuniary assistance they can obtain from their children at the very earliest period at which they are capable of earning anything, nothing can be more evident than the imperative importance of Infant Schools. The occupations of the parents render it necessary that their children shall be taken care of during a great part of the day, and this unavoidable evil may be turned to good account, by sending them for these hours to good Infant Schools. The founders of the Home and Colonial Society were fully alive to this fact many years before it was generally accepted. To their agency must be attributed the great extension of these schools, conducted under qualified Teachers. One great object of the Act of 1870 will be the extensive development of Infant Schools, whereby children will be withdrawn from the Dames' Kitchens and placed where by the age of seven or eight they may be able to Read and Write fairly and understand something of the elementary rules of Arithmetic.

Means of Supplying Teachers.—To produce such a result, it would seem that a very greatly enlarged system for the training of Mistresses will be necessary. This is a difficulty, as it requires special if not natural aptitude to deal with very young children, and to steer between the two extremes, namely, of either overtaxing their minds, or allowing the instruction to degenerate into mere mechanical routine. This difficulty might, however, be overcome, for the number of gentlewomen and superior persons in reduced circumstances, who are so anxious to obtain employment, could hardly enter on a higher calling, or engage in a work so eminently fitted for them, and at the same time so essentially important, as the training and educating of the rising generation during the tenderest years of childhood.

60. ART TRAINING SCHOOL

UNDER THE SCIENCE AND ART DEPARTMENT OF THE COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL ON EDUCATION.

First Efforts to Train Teachers.—The commencement of the School of Design in 1837 had scarcely been followed by the creation of branch schools in different parts of the country, when it became necessary to consider how Teachers could be trained for the work of these Provincial Schools. The subject occupied the attention of the Council of the Government School of Design as early as 1841; for from their Minutes of April 6 in that year, it appears that, on the motion of Mr. Ker, the Council resolved 'that a Normal Class be established, and that six Exhibitions, of an amount not exceeding 30*l.* a year, should be founded for the education of six Teachers.'

Probationary Training Class.—A Committee was appointed, in order to carry out this scheme, and pending the necessary arrangements, a Probationary Normal Class, in common with the Government School of Design at Somerset House, was commenced with 10 students on October 12, 1841.

Commencement of Training School—First Students.—The regular Normal Class, likewise in connection with the School of Design, was formed in the following year, and the first six students who gained Exhibitions were Messrs. Durrant, Lambart, Norbury, Patterson, Thompson, and Wallis. Several of these students were eventually appointed to Local Schools of Design, but it was considered that the Class did not satisfactorily accomplish the object for which it was formed.

Change of System.—In consequence of this it was arranged, before the end of the year, to merge, for the future, this special Normal Class of six Exhibitioners into the existing Upper Class

of the Government School of Design. The six Exhibitions to this Class were to be continued, but only to be competed for by those who had attended the School of Design for at least one year. All the Upper Class were to be so instructed that they should be qualified either as Teachers or Ornamental Designers, and were to be exempt from the payment of any fee. The Exhibitioners were required to attend the Classes regularly for two or three years, and during that time were to hold themselves in readiness to assist in teaching either in the Central or Branch Schools of Design. It was afterwards arranged that an additional payment of 5*s.* a week should be made to them during the time they were thus engaged in giving instruction in Drawing. After a year's experience, it was found desirable to modify this arrangement, and to employ the Exhibitioners as Assistant Teachers only at the District Metropolitan Institutions, and not at the Central School at Somerset House.

Mr. Etty's Proposal.—This plan of training did not, however, meet with much better success than the scheme which preceded it. In December 1843, Mr. Etty, a member of the Council of the Government School of Design, directed the attention of the Council 'to the expediency of reconsidering the existing arrangements respecting Exhibitions as a training class for supplying masters to the Provincial Schools.' He proposed that in future *Artists*, selected by the Head Master of the Government School of Design, should be appointed to Provincial Schools, and that their salaries should be raised to 150*l.* per annum. In order to qualify them, he suggested that they should, on their appointment, study at Somerset House for eight months, and then, that an allowance should be granted to them for four months longer, for the purpose of travelling to such places on the Continent as the Council might direct. This was to enable them to complete their Art Training by a study of the finest specimens in foreign museums, and to make such sketches as might be useful to them hereafter.

Unsatisfactory State of Affairs for some years.—This proposal was not generally adopted, and the Council merely directed that an experiment should be tried, which does not, however, seem to have led to any practical result. For some years after this no special arrangements were made for educating those who wished to become Teachers, beyond affording them facilities for attending the regular course of study at the Government School

of Design at Somerset House. On an application being made to the Director from a Provincial School for the services of a Teacher, he selected one of the students who had shown any particular merit, and if he expressed his willingness to become an Art Teacher, recommended him to the locality. This was not a satisfactory mode of training. It virtually amounted to no real training at all; and besides, the private feeling of partiality on the part of the Director could not fail, under such a system, to be severely tried.

Commencement of a Regular System.—The inauguration of a regular system of training Teachers qualified to give instruction in Art must be considered to date from the year 1852, shortly after the creation of the Department of Practical Art. In the Report for that year it is stated, 'The class for training Masters has been established at Somerset House, which had been a want long felt in the schools. It was composed of those students of the School of Practical Art who were desirous of becoming Masters. All were required to pass an examination before they were allowed to enter this class.'

Regulations.—As a means of enabling promising Provincial students to take advantage of this course of training, an allowance of 1*l.* a week was granted to them, towards defraying their expenses during the necessary period of their stay in London. Certificates were awarded to those who passed successfully, and on their obtaining an appointment to a School of Art, the Board of Trade guaranteed them a salary of 70*l.*, at least, during the first year.

Conditions and Qualifications for Admission.—The regulations for admission to this Training Class were drawn out with considerable care. Specimens, consisting of outline and shaded drawings of ornament, ornament coloured or modelled, flowers, &c., from nature, and models or drawings of the human figure, were required to be sent in by each candidate. He was to have a good knowledge of the elements of Geometry, and some acquaintance with the French, German, or Italian languages. During his stay at the School, his whole time was to be devoted to study; and before being recommended to a local School of Art, it was necessary for him to pass through a special course of Drawing, Painting, or Modelling the human figure. In addition to this, each candidate was to pursue a course of study with a

view to his becoming acquainted with the peculiar manufactures of the district in which he was desirous of obtaining an appointment. This course consisted either of practical art applied to casting, chasing, and embossing metal, suitable for a Teacher at such a place as Sheffield or Birmingham, or of art as applied to china-painting for one likely to go to the Potteries; or of art applied to calico-printing, &c., for Manchester, and so forth. At the completion of the course of study, an examination was held; and certificates were given, setting forth the stages in art in which each candidate had been successful.

Regulations for Teachers in Ordinary Training Colleges receiving Art Instruction.—At this time the Committee of Council on Education published a Minute, by which an additional stimulus was given to the efficient training of Teachers in Elementary Drawing. The Committee informed the Managers of Training Schools that 'they would require evidence of a certain proficiency in Drawing to be afforded by each student, on account of whose examination the Training School received a grant; and that their Lordships would expect each Training School desirous of receiving Queen's Scholars to make adequate provision for imparting this branch of instruction.' As respects Pupil Teachers, their Lordships declared 'that they would regard it as improper to sanction their apprenticeship to Masters or Mistresses who had neglected to profit by the means available for acquiring a practical knowledge of Elementary Drawing.' In order to give every facility for all to be thus instructed, the Department of Practical Art directed that Pupil Teachers and Mistresses of Elementary Schools should be allowed to study at Schools of Art at half the fees paid by artisans. Masters were to be charged the same fees as paid by the artisans.

Way of Testing Results—Payments for Drawing.—The result of these regulations was tested by the Education Department, in the following way:—Inspectors were instructed, during their annual visit to each Elementary School, to give every Pupil Teacher an opportunity of being examined in a drawing exercise prepared by the Science and Art Department. His work was sent to that Department to be adjudicated on, and if above a certain standard, a prize of Drawing Instruments, &c., to the value of 1*l.*, was awarded. As Pupil Teachers were apprenticed for five years, and then, if meritorious, admitted for two years more at a Training College, it was arranged that they should be

examined in Drawing every year, and, if successful, should receive at the end of the seventh year a certificate of qualification to teach Drawing, concurrently with Reading and Writing, in the Schools to which they might be appointed. This qualification increased their certificate allowance, by enabling them to earn 5*l.* for teaching Drawing to the children of their schools, and, in addition, from 1*l.* to 3*l.* for each apprentice satisfactorily instructed by them.

Removal to Marlborough House—Statistics.—The organisation of the Art Training School was not completed until October 1853, when the School of Design was removed from Somerset House to more convenient premises at Marlborough House. At that date, 283 Schoolmasters, Schoolmistresses, and Pupil Teachers, engaged at their own schools during the day, attended Evening Classes twice a week, for instruction in Elementary Drawing, and each paid a fee of ten shillings a-year.

Increased Allowance to Students—Practical Teaching.—On the removal of the Schools, it was considered desirable to increase the subsistence allowance to the students who were attending the special Training Classes. It was therefore made to vary from twenty to thirty shillings a-week, according to the ability and progress of each student. Besides the course of training above described, which was to continue for at least twelve months, each was required to teach at one or more of the Provincial Schools, or at the Central School, besides taking some classes in Elementary Schools for the poor, in order to qualify him, by actual practice, for the duty of imparting knowledge to others.

Increased Attention to Training Teachers.—The demand for Teachers at this time was, however, considerably greater than the supply. No less than seventeen towns were anxious to open Schools, but were waiting to receive qualified certificated Masters. In consequence of this, it became evident that a Department which existed for the express purpose of encouraging the spread of Art could not devote its attention to a more important subject than that of supplying this want. Greater attention was accordingly given to the training of Masters at the Central School, and in the second Report of the Science and Art Department it is stated that 'when the School was transferred to Marlborough House, the training of Teachers became the first consideration to which the main efforts of the

Masters were directed, and the general School of Art became a secondary object.' Various alterations were accordingly made in the mode of conducting the instruction in the Training Schools, as also in the offers of remuneration held out to persons for inducing them to qualify as Art Teachers.

Course of Training—Certificate Payments.—The course of training in the twenty-three stages into which the Art Instruction had been divided, was now separated into six groups, as follows:—

1. Elementary Drawing and Colouring.
2. Painting Styles of Art.
3. The Figure, drawn and painted.
4. Modelling Ornament.
5. Modelling the Figure.
6. Technical Instruction.

Examination in the Principles and in the Styles of Art also formed a part of each group. To the holder of a certificate in each of these six groups an allowance of 10*l.* was granted; but no one Teacher could obtain more than 50*l.*, and that only for the highest efficiency. These payments were to be made, as long as the Teacher continued to give instruction, to the satisfaction of the Department, in a School of Art, and in no way depended on the success of the teaching as indicated by the results.

Statistics.—In the year 1854, no fewer than twenty-five Masters were in training for Art Teachers, and up to that time forty-four had passed through the School and received Provincial appointments. The system of employing the Teachers in training to assist in the Model School in Marlborough House, and in the District Schools in the Metropolis, before they were recommended to a local School of Art, was continued and proved highly satisfactory.

Technical Classes.—In order to enable these students to derive the greatest possible advantage during their term of study, the Technical Classes for Porcelain Painting, Wood Engraving, Lithography, Textile Ornament, Practical Construction, and Mechanical Drawing, were re-organised in 1855, with a view to make instruction in these subjects part of the regular course of training.

General Knowledge—Examination of Students.—The possession

of a knowledge of art was found, however, not in all cases to be accompanied by a sufficient amount of elementary education, such as it was essential for a Teacher to possess. Consequently, in 1855, it was decided that every candidate for admission to the Training Class should be required to pass an examination previously, in what was called General Knowledge, consisting of Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, and History.

Establishment of the 'Third Grade.'—About the year 1856, it was felt that the first urgent demand for Art Teachers had been, to a certain extent, supplied; and, consequently, students in training might with advantage remain longer at the Normal School. In a Report of Mr. Redgrave's, published in 1857, he states that, having these facts in view, and considering, further, that, as the public were beginning to see the advantage of a carefully considered course of study, and of the benefit of a rigid and well-defined system of public examinations, it was time to raise the standard of examination in what was called 'The Third Grade,' and to extend it considerably.

Description of Advanced Course — Certificate Allowance.—To carry out this, a highly advanced course was planned, for Architecture, as well as one for Ornamental Art. No one was to be admitted to compete for a certificate in either of these, unless he had previously passed in the lower divisions of the third grade. The architectural course was to include the preparation of plans, elevations, sections, and perspective drawings of large buildings, from written descriptions and measurements; workings and constructive drawings, of any parts, such as roofs, staircases, &c.; and detailed specifications of work, and estimates and schedules of prices. It was also recommended that, before entering on this study, each candidate should have taken a science certificate in Practical Mechanics. The course for advanced Ornamental Art was to consist of ornamental designs for some object; monographs of some one historic style of ornamental art; models and drawings, on a large scale, of some ornamental work. To each of these certificates a maximum value of 30*l.* was attached; and the holder was not limited to the 50*l.* certificate allowance, which, as before stated, was the utmost he could earn without this special qualification.

Removal to South Kensington.—The removal of the Art Training School from the premises occupied at Marlborough House

to the houses on the South Kensington estate was attended with great advantage. The number of students was considerably increased, and 'its efficiency both as a Training School of Art Teachers and as a centre for Art-education was very much strengthened.'

Abandonment of Technical Classes.—So many practical difficulties were experienced in carrying on the technical instruction in Porcelain Painting, Engraving, &c., which at this time formed part of the course of training, that, although the instruction in these subjects was in many ways beneficial, it had to be abandoned. The class for teaching Wood Engraving was also closed, in 1859, by Minute of July 2, which stated that 'After a full consideration of the difficulties which have attended the class for teaching Wood Engraving from its commencement, My Lords have come to the conclusion, but with regret, that it is not expedient to continue the class beyond the present session.'

Action of Training Schools in 1860.—In the year 1860 the Training School was in vigorous action at South Kensington, with 64 pupils in training, and 366 private students paying fees. A slight recapitulation of its action may here be inserted. Its whole staff of Masters existed primarily for the training of young persons as Teachers. These persons were selected, after competition, on account of their proficiency and ability, from among the pupils at the Provincial and District Art Schools. During their stay at the Training School, which varied from one to five years, and even sometimes to six years, they received gratuitous instruction, and a weekly payment of from 20*s.* to 30*s.* each. This competition for the privilege of studying in London acted as a stimulus to the local Schools of Art. During their stay, the pupils went through the usual curriculum of an Art School, and were further trained as Teachers by practising at the District Schools in the Metropolis, and also by teaching Elementary Drawing as a part of general education in Elementary Schools for the poor. When their training was complete they were pretty certain, if at all meritorious, to obtain permanent occupation as Teachers.

Private Students paying Fees.—The students who paid fees at the Art School were those of the public who wished to attend to learn Drawing, &c.; and as their fees materially reduced the

cost of the Training establishment, without in any way reducing its efficiency, the arrangement had been gradually extended from year to year. The number of pupils increased in proportion as the public appreciated the instruction afforded.

Reduction in Numbers Trained.—The Art Training School continued for some few years without important changes, except that the class of students receiving a weekly allowance was gradually reduced, whereas the number of those who were admitted to study without payment was at the same time increased. This was noted in the Reports of 1862 as being desirable, and a thing to be encouraged, in proportion as the Provincial Schools gained permanence.

Changes in Regulations for Admission.—In the following year a considerable change was made in the regulations for training Masters. It was considered that the time had arrived when the Local Schools of Art had become sufficiently advanced in their course of studies to enable them to train students for Masterships up to a certain grade of competency. It was therefore decided that no further payments should be made to students at the Training School, until they had taken the first certificate of the third grade. This led to the above certificate being worked for and obtained at the Local Schools. The time of each student in training, after he came to the Central School in London, was consequently more advantageously employed in pursuing advanced instruction.

Local Scholarships—Regulations and Payments.—The same Minute which made this alteration also created Local Scholarships at the different Provincial Schools of Art. The regulations for these Scholarships were as follows: One Local Scholar was allowed to the School of Art, provided it had five hundred poor children under instruction in connection with it. If more than a thousand children were taught, then one Local Scholar was allowed for each thousand children. The person appointed as Local Scholar was required to have obtained a first certificate of the third grade; and on each year's renewal of his Scholarship a further certificate had to be obtained by him. The payment granted to the School for these Local Scholars was sixpence for each poor child taught Drawing, up to a maximum of 25*l.* It was thought that these Local Scholars would enable the Art Master vastly to improve the teaching of Drawing

in the poor schools in his neighbourhood, afford to a certain extent the means of commencing the training of Teachers in the Provinces, and also supply the Central Training School at Kensington with pupils, qualified in a high degree by their previous education, to receive the benefit of the advanced course of training there pursued.

National Scholarship—Regulations.—The establishment of a limited number of National Scholarships to the Training School took place in 1863 by the Minute of March 3. The object of these was to enable advanced students, who gave evidence of a special aptitude in design, and who were, or intended to become, designers for manufacturers, to prosecute their studies in the Central School and Museum. They were tenable for one year, but have since been sometimes renewed for a second. The candidates were to be required to pass in the four papers of second grade Drawing, to take a National Medallion, and to submit works for inspection by the Science and Art Department. From the proficiency displayed in these works, the requisite number of scholars were to be selected in order of merit. During their stay at the Training School, they were to study daily in the Museum under the Head Master, and to receive a payment of 1*l.* a week. The working of this Minute has been successful. Of those who retired in 1869, five became employed as follows, namely: one by a decorator at St. Neot's; one by Messrs. Morris & Co., as a designer and glass painter; one as a designer for textile fabrics; one as a designer and modeller to the Westminster Marble Company; and one as a modeller and designer for metal work in Birmingham.

Removal to New Buildings.—In September 1863, the Training School was removed from the old houses and temporary wooden School-rooms into permanent buildings at South Kensington. This was a noteworthy change, inasmuch as since the commencement of the School of Design in 1837, during a period of twenty-five years, though it had been removed on three occasions, this was the first time of its being put in possession of premises properly adapted to the purpose of an Art School. The rooms now used are not inferior to any appropriated to Art Study in the world.

Establishment of Etching Class.—In 1864, an addition was made to the course of training by the establishment of an Etching Class.

The object of this was, that in addition to the instruction in Etching, thereby given to the students, such objects in the Art Collections of the South Kensington Museum as might be deemed of service to the Schools might be artistically copied, and circulated in the Provinces. Premiums are given for the best work, and the class has proved successful. The further addition of a class chiefly for the teaching of females in the art of Painting on Porcelain, towards the end of 1868, has been the only alteration of importance to the Training School since this period.

Reduction in Numbers Trained.—The number of students in training for Teachers, receiving a regular allowance from the public funds, was gradually reduced, and in 1869 had fallen to thirty-one. This reduction was considered the natural consequence of the more settled state of the Schools of Art. The sudden demand for Teachers which existed about the commencement of 1854, when so many Art Schools were formed, having been gradually supplied, the urgency of training with great rapidity was lessened. Added to this, the improved state of the Local Schools rendered it possible to train Teachers up to a certain point at these Institutions. In this way, the higher Art instruction, requiring an expensive residence in London, was left for the comparative few whose superior abilities rendered them more likely to make the best use of such opportunities.

Conclusion.—The extent of the effect on the Art culture of the country by the action of this Training School, it is difficult to determine, and is a subject on which various opinions may be formed. Judging, however, from the marked changes which have taken place in Art manufactures during the last twenty or thirty years, which are probably greater in this than in any other branches of industry, it must be acknowledged that the labours of the School have not only not been thrown away, but it may be fairly asserted that they have had a very large share in bringing about these improvements.

61. THE TRAINING SCHOOL FOR ARMY SCHOOLMASTERS UNDER THE SECRETARY OF STATE FOR WAR.

Commencement of School.—The extension of Army Schools in 1846, and the constitution of the various grades of Army Schoolmaster holding regular and precise rank, rendered it necessary to adopt some means of securing an efficient class of men to fulfil the duties of this office. A Royal Warrant, dated November 21, 1846, accordingly directed that a Normal School for this object should be created. The entire control was placed under the Secretary of State for War, and for the convenience of using the Duke of York's Asylum as a practising and Model School, it was decided to place the Institution at Chelsea on part of the grounds of that Asylum.

Entirely paid for by State—How managed.—The School under consideration differs from other training Institutions, inasmuch as the entire cost is defrayed out of the public funds, and does not therefore depend at all on voluntary contributions, nor on the results of its work, as shown by the success of its pupils. The management and general superintendence are in the hands of the Commissioners of the Royal Military Asylum, and the outlay on these two Institutions is included in the same estimate submitted annually to Parliament. The staff of Teachers at the Normal Training School, all of whom receive fixed salaries, is distinct from that of the Model Schools.

First Regulations for Admission.—By the first rules students were admitted after a competitive examination held twice a year by the Head Master. They were required to be not under nineteen or over twenty-five years of age, and to be at least 5 feet 4·25 inches in height. Civilians were obliged to give

A LONDON DAME SCHOOL IN 1870

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a bond of 50*l.* that, on the expiration of their training, they would enlist for general service, as Army Schoolmasters.

Qualifications of Candidates.—During the first years of the history of the Institution, owing to the demand for Teachers for the Army Schools then rapidly forming in all the regiments, the number of students was well kept up, and they were easily provided for after they had been trained. A large proportion of candidates who offered themselves, however, and who were admitted, possessed very little previous education. Colonel Lefroy, in his Report in 1859, states that it would have been undesirable to raise the standard of qualification for admission to such a point as to exclude the non-commissioned officers of the army. These formed about one-fourth of the total number of candidates up to that date. The persons admitted were classified as follows:—

Military.—Those who had been previously Non-Commissioned Officers	48
Civil.—Those who had been Monitors	37
Those who had not been Monitors	93
	178

Deficiencies of Teaching—Suggested Improvements.—According to the same authority, a large part of the first term was taken up in training these men to habits of study, and in 'unteaching them the imperfect inaccurate knowledge they bring up.'* At that time, the whole course was considered to have too little reference to the future duties of the students. It did not sufficiently qualify them to fulfil the important work of educating the soldiers in the various duties which would devolve upon them should they become non-commissioned officers. Colonel Lefroy stated, that young Teachers quitted the Normal School as ignorant as when they had entered it, of everything connected with the discipline, duties, pay, and administration of a regiment. He suggested that these deficiencies might be remedied by the addition of a course of lectures, especially on military accounts, and the principles of school management. He further urged, that the art of teaching should be more kept in view throughout the whole training than it had hitherto been.

Course of Instruction.—Many of these suggestions have since been incorporated into the system of the Institution, and the teaching is now very extensive. It includes Arithmetic, Algebra,

* Report on the Regimental and Garrison School of the Army, by Brevet-Colonel J. H. Lefroy, R.A. 1859.

Euclid, Logarithms, Trigonometry, Mechanics, English Grammar, Geography, Scripture, English, Indian, and Colonial History, Penmanship, Reading, Chemistry, Drawing, Fortification, and Vocal Music.

Arrangements of Students' Time—Practical Teaching.—The students, on entering the Training School, attend the classes for one year, the average time devoted to study being thirty-nine hours per week, in addition to six hours' drill. At the end of this year, they have to present themselves for examination under the Director-General, and if qualified, are required to act as Assistants in the Model Schools of the Asylum for about twelve months longer. After this, and even sooner in some few cases of particular merit, they obtain their appointments as Army Schoolmasters. It will be seen that, by this arrangement, the training in the Army Schools and that at the Model School at Chelsea is necessarily similar, since all the Teachers have virtually served an apprenticeship under the Upper Master of the Model School.

Science Instruction.—The teaching of Physical Science, and the mode of making experiments by which to illustrate lectures suitable for large audiences, as also the adaptation of simple and economical apparatus for such purposes, is carefully attended to by Mr. W. J. Reynolds, M.A., the Head Master of the Training School. This instruction is particularly useful to the Army Schoolmaster, when attached to a regiment.

Certificates—Presentation of Books on Leaving—Rank of Teachers.—Those students who leave the Institution qualified for the office of Army Schoolmaster, are furnished with certificates. These are of three grades, according to the pupil's proficiency both as a scholar and as a Teacher during his term of probation at the Model School. In addition to this, about thirty useful books and some sets of philosophical instruments are presented to each. These he is allowed to retain, but is required to produce them for inspection every quarter. The Army Schoolmaster is attached to the regiment, and ranks next to the Serjeant Major.

No School for Training Mistresses—How Supplied.—No special Institution exists for the education of young women as Army Schoolmistresses. They are trained in most cases at the Whitelands, and the Home and Colonial Colleges, in the ordinary

way, and their cost is defrayed by the State and allowed for in the Army Estimates.

Institution not Progressing—Probable Reasons.—The general working of the Chelsea Training School is reported on by examiners unconnected with the Institution, who are appointed every year to examine the pupils as to their competency for fulfilling the duties of Army Schoolmasters. From these Reports it would appear that the system of training is in every way efficient and satisfactory. In spite of this, however, the Institution of late years has not been progressing, the number of students having decreased considerably. It may be that the authorities contemplate the abolition of so expensive an arrangement as supporting a separate Training College for so few pupils. The plan of appointing Instructors trained at the ordinary colleges, has been carried out with success for the Army Mistresses, as well as for the Teachers in Marine Schools, referred to in another chapter. When the Chelsea Normal School was commenced, such facilities were not open for recruiting the ranks of the Army Schoolmasters, but considering how the Training Colleges under the Committee of Council have developed since the Institution at Chelsea was founded, there seems no reason why the same system should not be adopted as a means of supplying efficient Masters for the Army Schools.

Suggestions for Plan of Training pursued in the Navy.—It might be open to consideration whether a plan such as that now arranged for the Navy Schoolmasters might not be practicable for supplying the Army with Teachers. Pupil Teachers might be appointed at the Royal Military Asylum, Chelsea, in a similar manner to those now provided at the Greenwich Hospital Schools. These, after the special training of five years or whatever time was considered desirable, could be sent to an ordinary Training College under the Committee of Council on Education. It would be necessary, no doubt, to bind them as the Navy Schoolmasters to serve in the capacity of Army Schoolmasters for a certain period. In this way it would be easy to train just as many, or just as few, Teachers as were absolutely required. With a regular Training School it is not only very expensive, but a source of inefficiency, if the number in training at one time is reduced below a certain limit; and this is, no doubt, one of the reasons of the decline of the Institution at Chelsea.

Conclusion.—The improvement in the educational condition of the Army which has taken place of late years, and which is considered in a former chapter, is without doubt due very largely to the introduction of qualified Army Teachers holding a definite rank. It may be hoped that before long, under the new Education Act, all recruits will enter the Army with an elementary education superior to that of many who have now been for years in the service, and have attended school with fair regularity. Considering this, an advance in the attainments of Army Schoolmasters will be necessary, as their duties will be higher and more technical and scientific as the intelligence and knowledge of the Soldier increases.

EDUCATIONAL ARRANGEMENTS

AND

INSTITUTIONS

SPECIALLY INTERESTING.

THE FAVERSHAM EDUCATIONAL ARRANGEMENTS.

THE SALTAIRE EDUCATIONAL ARRANGEMENTS.

THE ORPHAN SCHOOL, ASHLEY DOWN, BRISTOL.

THE MILITARY SCHOOL OF MUSIC, KNELLER HALL.

62. THE FAVERSHAM EDUCATIONAL ARRANGEMENTS.

Particulars of Faversham.—The ancient town of Faversham in Kent contains about 7,000 inhabitants; it has a Charter of Incorporation, consisting of a Mayor, four Aldermen, and twelve Councillors. The occupation of the inhabitants of the surrounding parishes consists largely in dredging for oysters, farming, brickmaking, and in the manufacture of gunpowder, and Portland and Roman cement.

Large Local Charities.—Like many ancient towns, Faversham has numerous charities with large endowments, about 3,500*l.* a-year being available for various purposes. These charities are administered by a body of Trustees, carefully selected and appointed for life by the Court of Chancery. The full number is sixteen—five of whom form a quorum: when, from death or other causes, the number becomes inconveniently reduced, vacancies are supplied by application to the Court. The largest fund is that bequeathed by Mr. Henry Wreight, in the year 1840, amounting to over 1,800*l.* per annum. According to this gentleman's will, the money was to be spent in a variety of ways, though all for the relief of the poor, in some shape or other. Fortunately, the idea seems to have struck him, that in so small a place it might be difficult at times to find proper means of employing so large a sum, and he inserted the following words towards the end of the conditions of trust, viz.:—'and [the money shall be applied] in any other way the Trustees shall think proper, and most conducive to charitable purposes in the said town.'

Effect of the Almsgiving.—As might be imagined, the Trustees had at first considerable difficulty in expending the income,

particularly as the town at that period was smaller than at present; but no sooner did it get known that so much money was going begging, than idlers and tramps began flocking to the town like birds of prey, in the hope that special relief would be granted to them. A large pension list was formed—loans of money were made to poor persons—the parish rates of some were paid—and an organised system of distribution of bread, soup, and coals was established during the winter; in short, almost every encouragement had to be held out to the poorer classes, in order to get rid of the money.

District Pauperised.—The effect of this was not long in making itself felt, and the Trustees discovered that, in reality, the Charity, instead of being a blessing, was quite the reverse, for the town was becoming rapidly pauperised, not only by the influx of so large a number of immigrants, but by the demoralising influences which the gifts had on the hitherto hard-working inhabitants.

Determination of the Trustees.—Such being the case, the Trustees of the Faversham Charities determined to act on the spirit of the latter clause of the will, and expended a large amount of accumulated income arising from repaid loans, &c., in rebuilding the National School on a new site, and on a scale commensurate with the growing wants of the district. It was soon found to be desirable to develop the system of education still further, and to apply the residue of the Charity Fund to purposes more in harmony therewith. The Trustees accordingly applied to the Court of Chancery for the requisite authority, which was obtained, after some little opposition, in 1856, and a scheme for the proper use of the funds finally settled.

The outline of this was as follows:—

(*a*) Almshouses, at a certain cost, were to be erected.

(*b*) 1,000*l.* was to be devoted to building residences for the Mistresses of the National School, as also Class and Committee Rooms, &c.

(*c*) A sum of 530*l.* per annum was to be set aside, for the Trustees to be at liberty to devote to the National School.

(*d*) A Commercial School for the middle-class was to be erected at a cost of 3,200*l.*

(*e*) A certain sum was placed at the Trustees' disposal for exhibitions, to be given to boys in the National and Commercial Schools, to enable them to continue at the Grammar School.

(*f*) A certain sum might be used for Scholarships from the Grammar School to the Universities.

(*g*) The idea of making a recreation ground for the use of the town was afterwards added to the scheme, and the Court of Chancery gave its authority for the necessary cost being defrayed from the Wreight funds.

(*h*) In addition to these objects, other useful and charitable objects were provided for.

The Grammar School.—Such was the scheme, and, with the Grammar School founded by Dr. John Cole in 1527, and restored by Queen Elizabeth in 1576, the income of which amounts to about 370*l.* (but at present reduced by certain outpayments for new buildings on the farm to 280*l.*), it forms the system of education provided for the town. The working of each branch will now be briefly considered.

The National Schools.

Plan of Schools.—These Schools are all Day Schools, with the exception of some Evening Classes for boys and men, held during the winter months. They are conducted on the whole-time system, there being no Industrial Training, and not even any drill. They are divided into the Infant School for boys and girls under seven, the Girls' School for girls over seven, and the Boys' School for boys over that age.

All Girls wear a Pinafore in School.—A feature in the Girls' School, which gives it a pleasing appearance to a visitor, is the custom of making each child, while at work, wear a white pinafore, which is left behind on quitting the schoolroom. The appearance of these white uniforms gives a clean and fresh aspect to the classes.

Instruction.—The course of instruction does not go beyond that usually pursued in ordinary National Schools, with the addition of needlework for the girls: though, as a proof that the instruction is sound, it should be stated that, last year, the inspector, Rev. G. R. Moncrieff, reported that 'results of the standard work were high, about 94 per cent. on the very large number presented.'

Mixture of Social Classes.—In one respect there is a great difference between the Girls' and Boys' Schools. In the latter

are found the children of artisans and small shopkeepers, and parents do not mind their boys mixing with those who are rather below them in station. With the girls, however, this is not the case, many parents having an idea that it is more genteel to send their daughters to Private Schools, where, indeed, the education is often defective, though the fees are considerably higher. In consequence of this, almost all the girls at the National Schools are of the artisan and labouring classes.

No Religious Difficulty.—The sectarian difficulty at Faversham is completely got over, though the Managers have never been bound by a conscience clause. The deed of conveyance of the school site contains simply the ordinary provisions settled by the National Society. The Committee, without being thus bound, have always conducted the National School in the most liberal spirit. Religion is taught on the broad principles of Christianity, with the Church catechism; though any parent sending a written objection may have his child excluded from such instruction. The consequence is, that only some half-dozen have availed themselves of this privilege in the last dozen years, though a very large number of the scholars are not members of the Church of England. An attempt was made in May 1869 to obtain definite information as to the number of children of each denomination, and the following was the result:—

Church of England	480
Wesleyan	214
Baptist	63
Independent, &c.	212
Roman Catholic	1

The figures cannot, however, be implicitly relied upon. The Sunday School registers, from which they are obtained, are sometimes loosely kept. A much larger proportion than is here given really belong to the Church of England. A considerable number of parents who regularly attend church send their children to Dissenting Sunday Schools because they are admitted there at an earlier age than at the Church Schools, and the parents do not care afterwards to remove them. Taking this into consideration, however, the enquiry proved what a large mixture existed in the Schools.

Numbers in School.—The numbers of children in the Schools, paying one penny a-week, during last year, were:—

Infants	375
Elder Girls	245
Elder Boys	350
Evening scholars, chiefly composed of those who have left the day school for some employment	55
	1,025

Managers.—The Schools are managed by a Committee of twenty, four of whom consist of the Chairman and three other Trustees of Public Charities. The remainder is made up of the Lord of the Manor, the Mayor, some of the neighbouring clergy, and representatives of the subscribers. The Trustees, on the recommendation of the Committee, have the power to send up the best boys, to the number of eight, from this School to the Commercial School, and also to pay their fees. By this means a promising lad gets the first step, if he shows any peculiar ability.

The Commercial School.

Origin—Instruction given.—This School originated in the formation of an advanced class for the National School, which increased so rapidly as to render it advisable to make it into a distinct advanced school. For this purpose, as before stated, 3,200*l.* of Wreight's fund was applied for, and afterwards devoted to the erection of suitable premises. The School is entirely a Day School, though the Head Master takes about twenty-five boarders; the course of study is considerably in advance of that given at the National School, and all are required to read and write, and have some acquaintance with the first four rules of Arithmetic, before they can be admitted. It is greatly to be regretted, however, that elementary science forms no part of the curriculum, not even for the elder boys.*

Fees.—The fees at this School are 3*l.* per head per annum; the boys vary in age from eight to sixteen, as will be seen below, taken in April 1869:—

Between 8 and 9	4
,, 9 ,, 10	9
,, 10 ,, 11	21
,, 11 ,, 12	13

* Evening classes under the Science and Art Department in Inorganic Chemistry and Animal Physiology are conducted at the Faversham Institute, by the Masters connected with this establishment. These classes are open to all the pupils in the Schools at a nominal charge.

Between 12 and 13	28
,, 13 ,, 14	21
,, 14 ,, 15	9
,, 15 ,, 16	5

Distances from which Boys Attend.—Some of the children come from considerable distances to attend the classes. The parents of 59 of the boys reside in Faversham; 16 within four miles; 14 at Whitstable; 2 in the Isle of Sheppey; 1 at Maidstone; 3 at Woolwich; 3 at Dover; 3 at Deal; 4 at Sittingbourne; 4 at Chatham; 1 in London. Many of these necessarily reside with the Head Master, but it is interesting to know that 96 reside, either with their parents or in lodgings, within one mile of the School; 3 within three miles of the School; 7 within four miles; 1 within five miles; and 3 within seven miles, going backwards and forwards daily.

Mixture of Social Classes.—The mixture both of grades of society and also of sects in this School is noteworthy, and makes it evident that supposed difficulties from these causes are more imaginary than real. The scheme for the management of this School contains a conscience clause. Of the 110 boys in the School, in May last, 14 were sons of professional men; 15 the sons of farmers; 51 of tradesmen; 8 of ship-owners and merchants; 7 of clerks; 13 of artisans; and 2 of mariners; and, further, the parents of 60 of them belonged to the Church of England; 28 to the Wesleyan body; 1 to the Baptists; 20 to the Independents; and 1 to the Jewish community.

The Grammar School.

Not in a Satisfactory Condition.—This is, unfortunately, at present, the part of the Faversham scheme which does not fulfil its proper duties. It might be expected to form the culmination of the educational arrangements of the town, and so, probably, will be made to do by the Endowed Schools Commission. The vital question as to who are the Managers is somewhat disputed between the Trustees of Public Charities, the Corporation, and the Warden of All Souls College, Oxford, so that any improvements are difficult to carry out. The present Head Master is a gentleman of very advanced age, and, consequently, too old to perform his duties, which have to be attended to by deputy.

Statistics.—The number of scholars, up to the beginning of the

year, was eight, each paying a fee of 8*l.* per annum ; and, as the endowment is 280*l.*, the cost per student is as high as 43*l.* per annum. For this they are merely taught by one Master, and receive no board whatever, and there can be no doubt but that the education at the Commercial School at 3*l.* is as much better as it is cheaper. This state of things will, no doubt, be shortly changed, as the feeling in the town is strongly against it, and in 1869 a deputation waited on the Right Hon. W. E. Forster on the subject.

Recent Increase.—It is only fair to state that through the exertions of the present Deputy Head Master, the number of scholars had increased in November to 19, and that the School has recently been subjected to an examination under the authority of the College of Preceptors.

Exhibitions to Universities.—The Trustees of Public Charities have power to give two exhibitions to Oxford and Cambridge, of the value of 60*l.*, to the best scholars in the School, but owing to the small attendance, in consequence of the inefficient state of the Grammar School, this has never been done until within the last few months, during which one exhibition has been awarded.

The Mutual Relation of the Schools One to Another.

Means of Advance from School to School.—The peculiarity of the Faversham Schools is their connection one to another, and the means they afford to a promising boy of rising, even from the lowest rank, to a position culminating even in a University diploma. This final step will be more satisfactorily arranged when the Grammar School has been remodelled.

From Infant to Commercial School.—The Infant and National Schools receive the children of the poorer classes, the payment being but one penny per week. A sound education is here given until the age of twelve ; at this age they must leave, though the greater number unfortunately give up school long before that period. To those who show any promise, a free admission is given by competition to the Commercial School, and by this means a boy rises at least one step, and may have the advantage of an excellent advanced education, until he is sixteen years of age.

To Grammar School.—So far, the promotion of a clever boy is secured, and the next step is an exhibition to the Grammar School. The Trustees have power to grant 50*l.* a-year, in sums not exceeding 10*l.* each, for this purpose. Were the Grammar School what it shortly will be, this step would be an immense advantage, and be the means of bridging over the widest gap which at present separates the poor genius from the way to usefulness.

To the University.—To the most distinguished, a further opening would present itself after this, in the shape of a 60*l.* scholarship to Oxford or Cambridge, the funds for this, as for every previous step, being obtained from Wreight's Charity, thus happily snatched from being appropriated to the creation of pauperism, and applied to the only sound way of reducing poverty, namely, the improvement of education.

Hardly Possible to have a better Scheme.—It is difficult to conceive a better system, or a more admirably drawn scheme for providing for the education of a town, than the one which has been thus sketched out as existing at Faversham, and, as far as it has gone, the results have been quite successful. The culmination in the Grammar School, being at present in an unsatisfactory state, is to be regretted, though it cannot be looked upon as permanent. From the energy and ability displayed by the inhabitants in the National and Commercial Schools, it is not likely that they will remain much longer in getting the Grammar School completely re-organised, and put on a proper footing.

Suggestions for fully Carrying it out.—It would seem probable that the office of Head Master of the whole set of Schools, including Grammar, Commercial, and National, might be entrusted to one officer, charged with general superintendence, and remunerated partly by a fixed salary, and partly by fees; and not only so, but it would be clearly advantageous if the Schools were under one Educational Board, composed of representatives of the interests of the Trustees of Public Charities, the College, the Corporation, and the Subscribers to the National Schools. The classes in the Grammar School should be as superior to those in the Commercial, as the Commercial are at present to the National. None should be admitted to the Grammar School unless they had passed through the other schools, or, at any rate, were sufficiently educated to benefit by the classes, which

should be only of an advanced nature. At present, considerable time is spent at the Grammar School in giving elementary instruction in Reading and Writing. The resources of the Schools, when combined, would supply sufficient funds to provide an ample staff of Teachers of various subjects, including Physical Science, and there could be no doubt but that, with these advantages, coupled with the attractions of the exhibitions to the Universities, which might be thrown open to all the inhabitants of Kent, the Faversham educational system would be second to few in the country.

Statistics.—Several points are worthy of note in the Institutions under consideration. They show chiefly what may be done, even in a small place, by the proper use of endowments, and by organisation and combination. The Schools are much more efficient than half-a-dozen small ones in different parts of the town would be. The religious sect difficulty is here practically got over, and, further, a step is made of inducing parents to allow their children to be educated together, though their station in life may be somewhat different.

This Plan might be Pursued in many Places.—Faversham in no way differs from many other towns. A large number of places have funds at their disposal, which are yearly wasted or spent in fostering idleness, under the cloak of charity. Were they all to take a lesson from Faversham, and adopt this system, by combining the small District and Party Schools into large and well organised Institutions, the charity funds thus used would soon bear their own fruit, and more effectually relieve distress than any number of Sunday doles.

63. THE SALTAIRE EDUCATIONAL ARRANGEMENTS.

Peculiarities of Locality.—The town of Saltaire is situated about four miles from Bradford, in one of the most beautiful parts of Yorkshire. The estate on which it is built attracted the attention of the present owner, Sir Titus Salt, from its possessing unusual facilities for the transport of goods, and at the same time being so near the very centre of the Worsted Manufacturing District. It is remarkable for many reasons, and has been entirely built within the last twenty years, the first stone having been laid in the year 1851. Sir Titus had at that time become one of the largest Yorkshire manufacturers, chiefly by his successful introduction of Alpaca as an important addition to the supply of raw material for the Bradford Trade.

Size of Mills, &c.—Being in want of new premises, Sir Titus purchased the estate, and erected gigantic mills, which are among the largest in the world. Some idea may be formed of their size when it is known that in one shed no fewer than a thousand looms are at work. Along one side of the mills the Midland Railway passes, and along the other the river Aire; whilst between the two, and dividing the manufacturing premises, is the Leeds and Liverpool Canal. With these conveniences, it is not to be wondered at that the site was considered so eligible for laying the foundation of a colossal manufactory.

Erection of Town, &c.—The erection of the mill, with its necessary belongings, was not the limit of the scheme projected by the owner. The whole estate was planned out so as to form a complete Model Town, where all the workpeople employed could reside, if they thought proper to do so, and where every facility for social enjoyment and relaxation should be provided. With this view, in the course of a few years, no fewer than 820 model cottages were built, each being supplied with gas, water, &c.

A certain number of shops were also erected, so that most articles in daily use can be obtained without necessitating a journey to Bradford.

No Public House on Premises.—Sir Titus has always refused to allow any public-house or beer-house to be located on any part of his property. This he has done, not from a desire to prevent the inhabitants from drinking beer, but because he considers that the public sale of intoxicating drinks as now carried on is not conducive to the welfare of the people. Many of the workpeople have their supply of beer in casks direct from the brewery, and this is not at all interfered with, thereby showing that Sir Titus does not act on any narrow-minded principles. The salutary effect of thus limiting the number of licensed houses, and at the same time giving every facility for legitimate wants, is recognized by all who have resided in the neighbourhood.

Statistics—Almshouses.—The general statistical information concerning the town is as follows:—Number of cottages, as before stated, 820. Of these, 45 are almshouses, founded by Sir Titus Salt, 'in grateful remembrance of God's undeserved goodness, and in the hope of promoting the comfort of some who, in feebleness and necessity, may need a home.' The population is 4,356, including 75 residents in the almshouses. The area covered by the mills, sheds, &c., is nine acres one rood and twenty-seven perches. The cottages occupy twenty-five acres two roods thirty-seven perches, and the park, fourteen acres. The whole town therefore includes forty-nine acres and twenty-four perches.

Provision for Religious Worship.—The arrangements for religious worship in the town have also been provided for in a liberal spirit. A Congregational Church erected at the sole expense of Sir Titus, at a cost of over 12,000*l.*, seats about 700 persons. This building has been conveyed to Trustees. A Wesleyan Chapel, built by that denomination, accommodates about the same number. Sir Titus gave the land for this place of worship, and subscribed 100*l.* to the funds. These places of worship provide for a large section of the population, and those who are members of the National Establishment attend at the Parish Church, about a quarter of a mile distant. Besides this, various Dissenting Chapels exist in the parish of Shipley.

Educational Arrangements.—With so much consideration for the welfare of the workpeople, it is not likely that the educational wants of the children would have been forgotten. By a reference to the plan at page 518 it will be seen that ample school accommodation is provided. In laying out the town, a central and most convenient position has been set apart for the blocks of buildings devoted to the various branches of study. In fact, these form the most marked feature of the town. Mr. Fitch, in his Report for 1868, stated that the School Buildings, for beauty, size, and completeness of equipment, had no rivals in his district. The outlay on the school accommodation alone has amounted to no less than 7,000*l.*, a sum defrayed entirely by the private liberality of Sir Titus.

Provision for Advanced Instruction.—The educational arrangements provide for almost every branch of instruction requisite for a place of the size of Saltaire ; and include all grades, from infant teaching, to the advanced subjects of a Science and Art School. They divide themselves somewhat naturally into those carried on in the Elementary School Buildings adjoining the main road, and those for which the Club and Institute has just been erected, at a cost of over 20,000*l.*, immediately opposite.

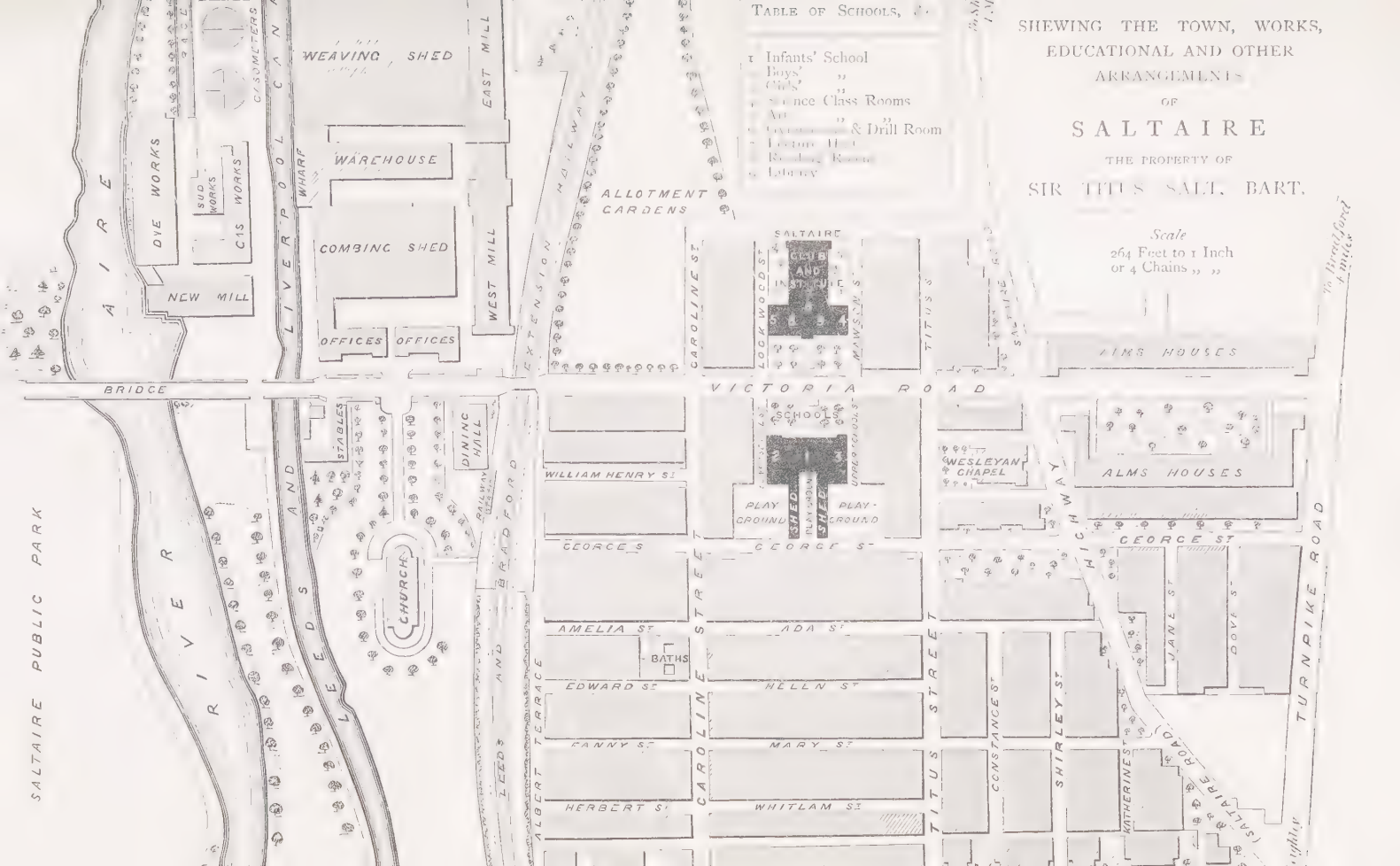
The Elementary Schools.

Description of Buildings.—These are subdivided, as usual, for Infants, Girls, and Boys. Each class of children has a separate Schoolroom, to which is attached the necessary Class-rooms. There is also a large playground, and a covered recreation-shed for wet weather. The Boys' and Girls' Schools are under the inspection of the Education Department, and receive the public grants. In 1869, Mr. Fitch, in his Report, stated that the Saltaire Boys' School was rapidly becoming one of the best, as it was already the handsomest, schools in his district.

Statistics—Fees.—The number of children in average attendance in 1870 was as follows :—

Infants	200
Girls	380
Boys	430
Total	1,010

and the grants received from Government amounted to 244*l.*


SHEWING THE TOWN, WORKS,
EDUCATIONAL AND OTHER
ARRANGEMENTS
OF
SALTAIRE
THE PROPERTY OF
SIR TITUS SALT, BART.
Scale
264 Feet to 1 Inch
or 4 Chains
TABLE OF SCHOOLS, &c.
1 Infants' School
Boys' "
Girls' "
Science Class Rooms
Art "
Gymnasium & Drill Room
Lecture Hall
Reading Room
Library
AIRE
DYE WORKS
SUD WORKS
CIS WORKS
NEW MILL
LIVERPOOL CANAL
WHARF
WEAVING SHED
EAST MILL
WAREHOUSE
COMBING SHED
WEST MILL
OFFICES
OFFICES
EXTENSION RAILWAY
ALLOTMENT GARDENS
SALTAIRE
CLUB AND INSTITUTE
CAROLINE ST.
LOCKWOOD ST.
MAWSON ST.
TITUS ST.
ALMS HOUSES
BRIDGE
VICTORIA ROAD
STABLES
DINING HALL
RAILWAY
CHURCH
LEEDS AND BRADFORD
SCHOOLS
WILLIAM HENRY ST.
PLAY GROUND
SHED
WESLEYAN CHAPEL
ALMS HOUSES
GEORGE ST.
AMELIA ST.
ADA ST.
BATHS
EDWARD ST.
HELEN ST.
FANNY ST.
MARY ST.
HERBERT ST.
WHITLAM ST.
ALBERT TERRACE
CAROLINE STREET
TITUS STREET
CONSTANCE ST.
SHIRLEY ST.
KATHERINE ST.
JANE ST.
DOVE ST.
WICH LANE
SALTAIRE ROAD
TURNPIKE ROAD
SALTAIRE PUBLIC PARK
RIVER AIRE

The usual weekly fee charged to those children who are not half-timers is *2d.* for the Infants, *3d.* for the Girls, and *3d.* and *4d.* for the Boys; as, however, nearly all the scholars are half-timers, who pay no fees, the income to the School from this source is not great. All deficiencies are paid by the firm of Sir Titus Salt, Sons & Co.

Irregularity of Attendance—Cause, &c.—The progress of the children in the Boys' and Girls' Schools, nearly all of whom are engaged at the Saltaire Works, is fairly satisfactory, but the Teacher does not think their improvement equals that of the whole-timers, although it is undoubtedly more than half as rapid. Considerable trouble is experienced from the irregular attendance both of the boys and girls, who are constantly joining the School for a short time, and then leaving it again. The reasons for this are somewhat different from those which produce a similar evil in London, and other places in the South of England. The pupils in the Schools, though not limited to those at work at the Saltaire Mills, are composed very largely of those children who are necessarily half-timers until they are thirteen years of age. The children who reside in Saltaire, and are constantly employed, attend regularly, but it repeatedly happens, that when neighbouring works are slack, and discharge their hands, some of the children obtain employment at Saltaire, and while thus engaged, of course attend the School. Directly the mills adjacent to their own homes begin to work again for longer hours, or as soon as they can get work nearer their own doors, they leave Saltaire, and consequently their teaching has to be begun afresh at another school. This sometimes happens two or three times a year, and is a serious impediment to progress.

Drill not Sufficiently Attended to.—Drill is attended to only to a limited extent, and in this respect perhaps some improvement might be made among both the girls and boys, who would not be at all the worse for the systematic instruction of the Drill Sergeant.

The Advanced Schools.

Class of Students—Where Held.—These consist chiefly of Evening Classes, under the regulations of the Science and Art Department, formed for the benefit of the workpeople. Hitherto they have been carried on in the premises occupied by the

Elementary Schools during the day. They are, however, about to be moved to the magnificent block of buildings, 'The Saltaire Club and Institute,' now just complete, which will provide accommodation for these classes, such as is rarely met with in any Provincial Town. The instruction may be divided into that given in Science, and that given in Art.

1. *The Science Classes.*

Statistics.—In these, there are twenty-four pupils; twenty-two of these are studying Chemistry, and twenty Magnetism and Electricity. At the last examination, three obtained prizes in the Elementary Stage of Chemistry. The fees paid are *2s.* a session.

2. *The Art Classes.*

Statistics—Outside Day Classes.—In these there are thirty under instruction in Freehand, Geometrical, and Model Drawing, each paying a fee of *2s. 6d.* a session. At the last examination twenty-seven pupils were examined, and twelve were successful. It is hoped that when the new building is quite finished, Day Classes will be formed, composed of persons coming from the surrounding parishes, who can afford to pay a fair fee for instruction in Drawing. The arrangements both for the Science and Art Classes are very complete. Every care has been bestowed on the lighting of the Art Rooms, and in storing all divisions with what is requisite for the illustration, and efficient carrying out, of the lessons and lectures.

Advantages Provided at the Club.—In addition to these class rooms, the building is to serve as a Workman's Club. There are spacious reading rooms, lecture theatre with laboratory attached, libraries, billiard rooms, bagatelle and chess rooms, and an excellent gymnasium, extending under the whole of the large concert and lecture hall which forms the centre of the building, and is capable of accommodating 800 persons. All these advantages, with the extra fees above mentioned, for admission to the Science and Art Classes, are open to members of the Institution for a yearly payment of from *4s.* to *8s.*, according to age. There are also rooms for the use, at a small charge, of the various sick and benefit clubs and other societies unconnected with the Saltaire Club and Institute. The gymna-

sium room also serves as a winter drill hall for the corps of volunteers composed of men in the town, and commanded by Mr. Titus Salt.

Educational Provision Ample for all Children.—From what has been stated, it will be seen that almost every educational requirement for a small town has been provided. In this respect, Saltaire perhaps does not differ from many other places; but in the *extent* to which provision is made for educating the population, and the proportion of the inhabitants whose children take advantage of it, it is an exception from most districts. The school accommodation is amply sufficient for the wants of the town, and nearly every child is under instruction. The exact population is 4,356, all of whom must be considered as of the industrial class. Estimating that 22 per cent. of these are children within the school ages of 3 and 12, there should be accommodation for teaching about 1000. The regulation accommodation in the Elementary Schools is for 750, so that as a considerable proportion of these thousand must necessarily be half-timers, the provision would be more than sufficient for the requirements.

Extra Proportion of Children.—There is one point, however, to be considered, and that is, that the proportion of children to adults is in excess of the ordinary average. When a house becomes vacated, it is usual for several families to apply to be received as tenants, and, as a rule, preference is given, cæteris paribus, to that which has the largest number of little ones. This must somewhat throw out the above calculation, but probably not very much, and certainly not sufficiently to overstep the broad margin which is allowed for in the above calculations.

Saltaire a Model Town.—Saltaire must therefore be regarded as a model town as regards its educational arrangements, for it provides for teaching all its children, and has provision for an advanced instruction to those who think proper to avail themselves of it. In other respects also, it has been shown that it possesses many advantages rarely met with in so small a place.

The Park and Dining Hall.—Some allusion should also be made to the park of 14 acres at one end of the property, which has been laid out for the recreation of the inhabitants. Here a large cricket ground is provided, and in daily use in the summer, as are the bowling greens and croquet grounds. The dining hall must also be mentioned as a flourishing institution. It was

started on the Glasgow Penny Dinner System. A fixed tariff is published, and breakfast and dinner can be had of the very best description, at wonderfully low rates:—a good plate of meat 2*d.*; a cup of tea or coffee, ½*d.*; a bowl of soup, 1*d.*, and so on. Persons preferring to bring their own food and to make use of the hall, are allowed to do so, and they may also have anything cooked without payment. The management of the whole Institution is placed in the hands of a Superintendent, who has a fixed salary, without reference to the profits of the concern. He consequently is not tempted to stint the allowances. The leavings at every meal are carefully collected, and it is surprising how very wasteful the people are. Their prodigality, however, has its advantages; for without these remains it is doubtful whether the balance at the end of the year would be on the right side. All sweepings go to feed a large family of pigs kept on purpose to eat the sweepings, and so profitable is this arrangement that 50*l.* a year is thus realised towards the funds of the Dining Hall.

Conclusion.—The general working of a town such as Saltaire is especially interesting in many ways. The consideration bestowed on everything likely to improve the condition of the working-classes, and the great attention given to, and the ample provision made for, education, show that the founder of the town was fully alive to the great responsibilities incident to so colossal an undertaking. The development of his works at Saltaire shows that his princely liberality, though emanating from unselfish motives, has produced most successful results even in a commercial point of view; and the blessings which he has been instrumental in bestowing on others have been returned into his own bosom a hundredfold.

64. ORPHAN SCHOOL, ASHLEY DOWN, BRISTOL.

Reason for Considering this Institution.—The Ashley Down Orphan School deserves special attention for several reasons. It is the largest Boarding School in England, and no other establishment on so extensive a scale is in existence for educating children until they are fit to earn their own living. The way in which it has been gradually developed under the care and management of a single individual, and the method he adopts for its support, are such as to make it one of the most remarkable Institutions in these Islands.

Origin and Development.—The work was commenced in a small way in an old house in the city of Bristol, about five and thirty years ago, by Mr. George Müller, who is still its sole manager. By degrees it grew so much as to require regular school premises, and a large building was accordingly erected at Ashley Down; to this, in a few years, a second of like proportions was added, then another, and another, and now a fifth, at a total cost of 110,000*l.*, and capable of accommodating 2,000 children. The appearance of these fine premises is certainly imposing; they are built of excellent stone, and in the most substantial way. They are nevertheless perfectly plain, and both externally and internally show that every penny has been most carefully and judiciously laid out. It was wished to have a set of the plans showing how the buildings are arranged included in this volume, but Mr. Müller appeared to have objections to such a course. This is to be regretted, as a study of them would doubtless be useful to those purposing to build schools. The proportions of the ages and sexes of the children are as follows:—

Girls.—Under eight years of age	280	
Over eight	822	
		1,102
Boys.—Under eight years of age	208	
Over eight	290	
		498
Total		1,600

Income—How Raised—Money Never Asked for.—The income of the School, as well as the large sum already expended in buildings, has always been derived entirely from subscriptions and donations, a great part of which have been given anonymously. In the mode of obtaining this money Mr. Müller's conduct differs from that of most other School Managers. He *has never asked* for aid, and indeed such an act on his part would be quite contrary to the avowed principle on which he entered on the work on which he has been so long engaged. He considers that all the support which he has received has been given in answer to prayer. At times, during the history of the Schools, the orphans have been reduced almost to their last day's meal, and even then, Mr. Müller has taken no steps, beyond praying for assistance. At these times, by some donation at the very moment when it was most required, their larder has been again replenished. An account is published quarterly, giving the date on which each donation is received, and the quarter from which it comes. The average amount thus obtained is somewhat more than 300*l.* a week.

Cost per Head.—In 1868, the income was 19,446*l.* 19*s.* 8*d.*, including the sum realised by the sale of various articles of jewellery, plate, &c.; which are constantly being sent as donations. The cost per head of each child is given as 12*l.* 15*s.* 6*d.*, including *every expense without exception.* The details are not stated in the Report, and the Institution being of a strictly private character, the accounts are published without many particulars being furnished, which the outside world would be glad to know. Specific information on this item of cost would be the more desirable, as, even taking for granted that in the above annual cost no allowance is made for rent, it remains nearly sixpence per head per week less than the great schools at Sutton and Liverpool.

Class of Children Received—Rules for Admission.—The class of children who are clothed, maintained, and educated, is various. The appearance of the cast of countenance, and the shape of the head, indicate a superior class to that met with at either of the District Schools at Hanwell, Sutton, or Norwood. Some few of the children do come from the Parish Unions which these schools embrace, though the majority are from healthier districts and are of better parentage. The rules for admission are very simple, and are rigidly enforced by Mr. Müller. They are as follows:—

1. No child is admitted unless lawfully begotten.
2. Nor unless he or she has lost both parents by death.
3. Nor unless he or she be in needy circumstances.

No interest whatever is required to get a child into the School; nor is any money required to be paid on admission. A list is kept of applications, and they are received as vacancies arise, according to priority, provided they fulfil the above conditions. Strict investigation is made, and proper documents are required to prove that the three conditions are complied with.

Ages of Children.—The ages of the children vary from a few months to seventeen or eighteen years, a large number being infants hardly able to walk. When once admitted to the School they rarely leave it until a situation is found for them. Here, this Institution has an immense advantage over the District Schools, inasmuch as the whole time of each pupil, and of all the pupils collectively in the different classes, is entirely at the disposal of the Superintendent without danger of interference.

Effects of Regular Habits on Health.—It has been supposed that, as all the children have lost both parents prematurely, their constitutions are somewhat less hardy than the average of others of the same age. This may be so, and it seems the more probable when it is known that, of all the children in the School, three-fourths have lost one or both parents from that fatal and hereditary disease, consumption. The regular habits and excellent, though simple, food which the orphans receive, appear, however, even more than to compensate for this serious disadvantage; the fact being, that the death-rate is much below that exhibited by more favoured children, with whom the rules of diet, proper clothing, and general management are so often neglected, through the extremes of either mistaken kindness, ignorance, or neglect.

Sanitary Condition.—During the year ending May 26, 1869, 10 deaths occurred in the School out of 1,600, or 6·25 in the thousand, which would make the average rate of mortality very low. It must, however, be mentioned, that there were not 1,600 children on the rolls during the whole twelve months, but that this number was made up on the completion of the buildings. At the commencement of the year, 1,149 children only were under instruction, and the dates at which the increases were gradually made are not to be gathered from the Report. This would necessarily somewhat raise the death-rate.

No Industrial Work.—The School is conducted entirely on what may be called the whole-time system, in contradistinction to the half-time; that is to say, no part of the occupation of the children is devoted to industrial labour, but their training consists entirely of book-work. The only exception to this is that the boys make their own beds, clean their shoes, scrub their rooms, and help a little in keeping the garden ground round the Orphan Establishment in order; they also knit, and mend their stockings. The girls make their own clothes, keep them in repair, and are taught all kinds of needle and household work.

The Boys' Schools.

Subjects of Instruction—Progress not equal to Hanwell, &c.—The five houses, or Schools, are conducted on the same principle, and may, therefore, be considered as one. The subjects of study are Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, English Grammar, Geography, English, and a little Universal History. The amount of knowledge of these subjects imparted by the age of fourteen or fifteen, when the boys have to be apprenticed, it is impossible to estimate; but, judging from the writing exercises of a large class approaching that age, there can be no doubt but that the Hanwell and Norwood children, in spite of their physical disadvantages, are in advance of the Bristol Orphans. At the former Schools, it must be remembered that the half-time system is adopted, and but three hours a day are given to book-work, the remainder to physical training.

Want of Smartness—No Drill or Band.—In the general appearance of the Bristol boys a stranger easily notices a want of smartness and deportment. There is a sort of awkwardness, no doubt accounted for by the absence of drill, which is unfortunately not included in the school work. The only attempt seems to be the marching, or rather slouching, round the School-room, in and out among the desks, at the same time singing a monotonous air. Such exercise as this can hardly have any good effect on the boys, either physically or morally. Again, another feature which is missing in this School, and which in other Institutions is found to have so great an effect on all varieties of dispositions, is a Band. Among the boys there must be the material for an excellent Band, and, to say nothing of the capital opening for young musicians, the effect on the

whole School, coupled with a systematic drill, would be most beneficial. Drawing does not seem to be part of the curriculum, either as a separate study or as a part of the writing lesson, a plan which has been tried with such good results at Hanwell.

After-Occupation of Children.—The boys at the age of fourteen or fifteen are, almost all of them, apprenticed to some trade. Each has a free choice as to what occupation he will follow, but when he has once chosen it he is not allowed to change his mind. The trades selected are very numerous: Carpenters, Joiners, Basketmakers, Shoemakers, Tailors, Plumbers, Painters, &c., are among the most common, but almost every description is upon the list. On leaving the School to commence work, each boy has an outfit of clothes provided for him.

Clothes, &c. not Made by Children. The various repairs to the premises, such as painting, lime-whiting, plumbing, &c.; and the articles of dress—boots and tailors' clothes—which at the Hanwell, Norwood, and Sutton Schools are attended to, and manufactured, by the boys themselves, superintended by Industrial Teachers, are, of course, at the Orphan Establishment, performed by outside labour. This is to be regretted, as the occupation of the children in this way, though, perhaps, it does not effect any actual saving of expense, is certainly useful in making them handier in after-life, besides forming a change from the monotony of book-work.

The Girls' Schools.

Instruction—Effect of Machinery on Teaching Household Duties.—The course of study here is very similar to that pursued with the boys. The elder girls partially assist at several of the household duties, but the interests of the domestic economy of the Institution and those of the children's training are somewhat antagonistic. Thus in the Washing Department, everything is done on a gigantic scale; large washing-machines are employed; centrifugal drying-machines take the place of drying-yards; and every contrivance which modern science has invented for lessening labour, may be seen in daily use. This is advantageous and economical no doubt for the wants of the Institution, but it is not a good training for a young woman who is to go out as a servant. She would probably have to wash in a small family, and might hardly understand how to set about hanging clothes

out to dry, as she would have been accustomed to put them into a box, to turn a handle, and in a few minutes find them ready for the next process. In the Clifton Parish Workhouse School the whole of the washing is done by the elder girls, and in the old-fashioned cottage manner; and though this is not so expeditious, it forms undoubtedly a better and more useful system of training for the class of persons engaged.

Cooking with Patent Stoves, &c.—Again in cooking; in the same way, the patent stoves, which in some mysterious manner are capable of cooking an incredible number of joints, are very useful, but they require an experienced person to look after them. All that the girls can do is to put the joints, potatoes, soups, &c. in to cook, and take them out again when they are told that they are ready. This does not teach them how to manage the stoves, or to do such common cooking as they are certain to meet with in the situations for which they are supposed to be training.

Anecdote of Industrial Work.—The want of practical teaching of common household duties is, however, not limited to these large Institutions, as is shown by the following story of Dean Dawes' Industrial School as related by the Rev. W. Rogers:—The Dean took great credit to himself for having trained the girls to do everything that was required in the house: the clothes were made, the rooms attended to, the food cooked, the clothes washed, and in fact the Institution was a Model Industrial School. On one occasion he asked Mr. Rogers and another friend to go down and see the working of his pet scheme. Accordingly, one fine morning, they set out to the village where the School was. The Dean planned that the gentlemen should see all the arrangements first, and then be rewarded with a substantial luncheon, provided of course on the premises, before returning to town. Everything looked perfect, the girls were at work in the dormitories, the kitchens, and the wash-houses, and the company, after being delighted with all they saw, sat down to a nice leg of roast mutton with potatoes and parsnips. The Dean in his exultation pointed to everything as the work of the children. They laid the table, and waited on the visitors. He asked if they had cooked the mutton, and they said 'yes;' if they had boiled the potatoes, and received the same answer. What more could be required? Unfortunately, however, one of the gentlemen, either because he was less credulous than his friends,

or, perhaps, because he really wished to carry home a lesson for his own cook, inquired how long the fine leg on the table required to be roasted, to secure such a perfect result. This was a poser, and not so readily answered. The difficulty naturally led to further and more minute inquiries, when it ultimately came out, much to the worthy Dean's discomfort and surprise, that the cooking of the dinner by the children amounted to one of them having peeled the potatoes, and another having carried the joint to and from the bakehouse.

Practical Effect of School.—During the year ending May 1869, seventy-eight girls were sent out for service from the Ashley Down Schools; and from the careful records kept of the subsequent history of both boys and girls who have obtained situations, it is found that not five per cent. go wrong afterwards. It must be remembered that very bad children are not allowed to remain here, and last year three were sent away, as it was thought they would have a bad influence on the rest. Taking this into consideration, therefore, the results appear to be about equal to those of the pauper school at Hanwell.

Too much Show displayed—Effects of this.—All who visit this remarkable institution wonder at the systematic arrangement and order which prevails throughout it. Nothing, indeed, shows more clearly the business habits and excellent management of the founder than the careful attention to all points of detail. It is somewhat a pity, however, that the Schools have so much the air of show. Visitors by hundreds are daily sent through the rooms as mechanically as if the whole were done by clockwork. The children are discovered doing certain exercises; all the books in the Teachers' sitting and bed rooms are as carefully placed as if set by a straight-edge; the clothes are folded with too great a nicety; the kitchen things are in such perfect order as was never seen in a real kitchen—two drawers are left open to show the knives, forks, and spoons arranged like trinkets in a casket. All this gives the visitor an impression of unreality, and he is rather led to doubt whether this perfection is not assumed. He may be tempted, as the writer of this was, to look into the closed dresser-drawers, only to find, as he did, that the wondrous symmetrical arrangements of their neighbours did not extend to them, but that they were in the usual condition of every-day kitchen drawers. While fully appreciating the value of neatness, this mechanical perfection in every detail, with children, even if

always attended to, is certainly not natural, nor in keeping with the temperament of many; and when the youthful mind sees such little show arrangements as the dresser-drawers above mentioned, it is likely to imbibe, almost unconsciously, a spirit of hypocrisy which may never again be eradicated.

Suggestions and Conclusion.—In concluding these observations on this remarkable School, it must be owned that the plan of education might with advantage be somewhat modified and enlarged. It seems probable that some description of half-time would improve the condition of the children, and in the hours thus taken from book-work a complete course of drill should be adopted, both for the boys and girls, and also a system of industrial training arranged, more particularly for the former. Were this done, or were the school placed somewhat on the footing of the one at Norwood, it might be made the best school for the poor in the country, owing to the superior class of children, and the remarkable ability and goodness of the founder and manager.

65. THE MILITARY SCHOOL OF MUSIC AT KNELLER HALL, NEAR HOUNSLOW.

Origin and Object.—The Military School of Music at Kneller Hall, near Hounslow, London, was established in the year 1856, for the purpose of giving a thorough musical education to such soldiers as are selected by their Commanding Officers to become more efficient members of regimental bands, and also of training a due supply of Bandmasters for the Army.

Relation of an Army Band to the Regiment and its Officers.—To understand the general working of the School, it will be desirable to give some account of the relation which a regiment and its band bear to one another, and of the mode in which that relation is effected. It is necessary, according to the Queen's Regulations, that a band should form an integral part of every regiment. It is constituted of a certain number of men as bandsmen, together with one sergeant and one corporal. These men are soldiers, receiving their pay as such, and are subject to the ordinary military discipline. Beyond paying for the services of these men, no pecuniary assistance is granted by Government. The cost of instruments, and other charges, including the whole salary of the Bandmaster if he be a civilian, and a considerable portion of it if he be a soldier, being defrayed by the officers of the regiment.

Cost of supporting Band.—The duty of contributing to the support of the band is not left to the officer's choice, but a regular stoppage of twelve days' pay per annum is made by law for the purpose. In addition to this: on an officer receiving his commission, thirty days' pay is deducted for the band fund of the regiment to which he is gazetted; and, on his obtaining promotion, the difference between his increased pay and his

former allowance is stopped for a like period. The band of an English regiment is therefore in a somewhat peculiar position, and bears a mixed relation to the public taxpayer and the officers.

Former position of Bandmasters—Bands in the Crimea.—Until the establishment of the Kneller Hall Institution, the efficiency of the military bands depended almost entirely on the accidental appointment of an energetic and competent Bandmaster. In most cases this office was held by a civilian, and frequently by a foreigner. He was appointed by the officers, not unusually, on the recommendation of an instrument-dealer, and was paid a very high salary, out of all proportion to the income of the regimental band fund. He was of course subject to the rules of the band, by the terms of his engagement. Beyond that, however, he was perfectly independent, and at liberty to throw up his duties whenever he thought proper. This arrangement was unsatisfactory in several respects. It was really not the interest of the Bandmaster to educate his men in music, beyond accustoming them to play a certain number of pieces with great precision. By encouraging anyone to study beyond the mere attainment of the part he had to play with the band, he was running the risk of damaging his own profession by preparing a soldier for the work hitherto carried on by a civilian. Moreover, when a regiment was sent on active service abroad, or to an unpleasant station, the Bandmaster frequently resigned. This was particularly the case in the Crimea; so much so that, with scarcely an exception, the bands arrived there without a Bandmaster. It was to this circumstance, perhaps, more than to any other, that the formation of Kneller Hall is due.

Origin of Kneller Hall, and how commenced.—It is stated that the present Commander-in-Chief, His Royal Highness the Duke of Cambridge, was much struck, during the Russian War, with these somewhat disgraceful anomalies. Shortly after the close of that campaign, he suggested that steps should be taken to prevent their recurrence, by appointing a qualified *soldier* as Bandmaster to each regiment requiring one, who had previously been specially trained as an instructor of music. The regimental officers were consulted on the matter, and they unanimously agreed to establish a regular Training Institution, with a view to carrying out the suggestions of the Duke of Cambridge. In the year 1856 the present establishment was formed, the cost of

instruments and preliminary expenses being met by a subscription of 5*l.* from each regiment. The Government provided the building, and the portion of it which is occupied by the men, being a barrack, is free from all rates and taxes. The whole of the remaining costs, including instruments, music, and teachers (except the Army Schoolmaster, who is appointed to give instruction in elementary subjects), is defrayed by the officers. This involves a subscription of about 10*l.* a year from the band fund of each regiment.'

The Institution is a Small Barrack.—The Institution is, in fact, a small barrack, into which soldiers from every regiment are drafted, for the one purpose of studying music. The appearance of the men, about 150 in number, dressed in every variety of uniform, is very peculiar. During their stay, they receive the same pay and allowances as they would if attached to their regiments, and they are under regular military discipline. The command is entrusted to Colonel Whitmore, without the assistance of any other commissioned officers.

The Work of the Institution.—The work of the Institution may be divided into two branches—

1st. That in which boys and adult soldiers receive instruction in music, to qualify them for bandsmen.

2nd. That in which bandsmen are further trained for the higher post of Bandmasters.

1st. The Education of Bandsmen.

Mode of Admission.—This portion of the School contains by far the larger number of pupils. Admission to it depends entirely on the recommendation of the Commanding Officers of regiments, and is arranged as follows. The Commanding Officer, as occasion requires, selects a boy, or a soldier, who shows talent as a musician, and who is recommended to him by the Bandmaster. His name is forwarded through the Horse Guards to Kneller Hall, and a list is there made of those selected in the order in which they are received. On vacancies occurring, they are filled up from this list, and a warrant from the War Office orders the boy or man to leave his regiment and proceed to the Musical School. The students are received at first on probation, with the object of ascertaining whether they are likely to profit by the instruction given in the Institution. If the reverse is

found to be the case, after a short trial the pupil is sent back to his regiment. Such instances, however, are of rare occurrence, as, under the present system, the Bandmasters, having been themselves trained in the Institution, seldom make selection of an incompetent person.

Period of Study.—The usual period during which they remain in the School is rather less than two years. Efforts are frequently made by officers to get them back to their regiments as soon as possible, it being forgotten that a considerable time is required to enable a man to play an instrument even fairly well. The proficiency of the pupils of course varies considerably. In some cases they enter Kneller Hall partly trained in Music; as, for instance, the boys who have been brought up in the Band of the Chelsea Military Asylum, or some of the District Schools. In other cases, men enter who hardly know how to play a simple note. For these the two years' course is scarcely sufficient.

Selection of Instruments.—The selection of the instrument to which each new pupil will turn his attention, unless the Commanding Officer of his regiment specifies any particular one, is left to the opinion of the Professors as to his capabilities. When this is determined, it is necessary for him to confine his whole attention to it, in order that the form of mouth, the requisite pliability of fingers, &c., may be acquired by constant practice. Instruction or practice constitutes the whole of the day's work, with the exception of about an hour, at which each inmate has to attend the School for Elementary Study. It has been thought desirable to continue this branch of instruction, as it is one in which many soldiers are unfortunately at present deficient.

The Instructors are the best who can be obtained.—The classes for teaching the various instruments are presided over by the very best Instructors that can be obtained. It was for this reason that the School was located in the vicinity of London, so that the resources of the Metropolis might be available at as little cost as possible. The payments to these Masters form the largest item in the outlay of the Institution, being about 1,000*l.* a year. Among those at present employed may be mentioned Messrs. Lazarus, Park, and Martin for the Clarionet; Mr. Chapman for the Flute; Mr. Fowler for the Oboe; Mr. Snelling for the Bassoon; Mr. Mann for the French Horn; Mr. Prospere

for the Cornet and Tenor Brass Instruments; Mr. Cousins for the Bass Brass Instruments; and Mr. Mandel for the Theory and Instrumentation, &c. Among those who have been Professors at the Institution may be quoted Messrs. Richardson, Ziess, Sullivan, Stieglisle, Phasey, Hughes, Cioffi, and Hartmann. In fact, since the commencement none but those who stood at the very top of their profession have been retained.

Certificates of Competency.—When the pupil has completed his training, and is reported to the Commandant as qualified in the special instrument to which he has given his attention, he receives a certificate to that effect, signed by his Chief Instructor. He is then sent back to his regiment as a bandsman.

2nd. The Training of Bandmasters.

Class of Students—Course of Instruction.—The men who undergo this course of training are generally Band Sergeants. Like those training to be bandsmen, they are selected by the Commanding Officer of the regiment to which they respectively belong, on the recommendation of the Bandmaster. The time which they devote to musical study, before they become qualified for their duty, varies with almost each individual. They have to pass through a course of instruction in every instrument which is played in the band, and they are never allowed to be ranked as Bandmasters until they obtain a certificate of competency from the Head Instructor in each instrument. This certificate does not of course imply that they are expert players on all the instruments, or even that they can play them at all. Some wind instruments require what is technically called 'tongueing,' and forming the lip. This often necessitates constant practice for some years. Before a man is competent, however, to be a thorough Bandmaster, and to conduct his band efficiently, it is necessary that he should understand the character and use or mechanism of each instrument. It is also essential that he should be well acquainted with the theoretical part of music; the arrangement of the scores, instrumentation, transposition, &c. These matters are carefully taught, so that before a pupil leaves the Institution with a certificate as a Bandmaster, he is not only competent to conduct a band, but to instruct each member of it in all that relates to the science of music. Each pupil in

this division is also required to attend instruction in elementary subjects for one hour daily under the Schoolmaster.

Position of Bandmaster and Salary.—When a soldier receives the appointment of Bandmaster, after having been thus trained at Kneller Hall, he holds a regular position in the regiment, receiving the pay and allowances of a first-class Staff Sergeant, and taking rank with the Schoolmaster, immediately after the regimental Sergeant-Major. In addition to this, he is granted, out of the band fund, a sum of 100*l.* per annum, so that his position is extremely good. It is also permanent, that is, until his time of service is complete, subject of course to his good conduct. Not unfrequently Bandmasters find it advantageous to re-enlist for the second period, to complete the twenty-one years. The practice of selecting a Bandmaster from the bandsmen has been a means of effecting a considerable saving of expense to the officers. Formerly, when a civilian was employed as Bandmaster, he received the whole of his salary, amounting frequently to 250*l.* and even as much as 300*l.* a year, from the band fund. By this reduction, a fair addition is made to the resources of the regiment for other incidental expenses, which is available for rendering the musical arrangements more complete and efficient, and for giving the means of inducing clever musicians, who have completed their first period of service, to re-engage for the second.

Bandmasters now Rise from the Ranks—Good Effect of this.—Many of the pupils who are now being trained as Bandmasters, have previously been at the Institution, while undergoing instruction as bandsmen. This number, it may be presumed, will gradually increase, and in time nearly all the Bandmasters will thus have risen from the ranks. This change cannot but serve as an encouragement to men to good conduct and perseverance, with a view to excel in their avocation. It is a complete change from the system of former years, when a bandsman could never look forward to such a promotion. During their stay at Kneller Hall, the sergeants and corporals act in their respective capacities in maintaining discipline and other matters of military order and detail.

Saving in Cost of Instruments.—The Institution at Kneller Hall has indirectly been instrumental not only in rendering increased efficiency to the bands, but also in reducing the

outlay on instruments to regiments. Formerly, a good deal of arrangement took place between the Bandmaster and the instrument-maker, and the former always expected a heavy commission on all the purchases made for his regiment. The consequence was that each Bandmaster had a strong interest and inducement held out to him to have as many new instruments as possible. On the appointment of a new Bandmaster, the old instruments were invariably condemned. This is now materially changed. All orders for instruments are made on a regular form, transmitted through the Horse Guards to Kneller Hall, and thence to the maker. By this means a reduction of some 25 per cent. is made, which benefits the regimental band fund, instead of acting as a means of demoralising the Bandmaster. Many thousands of pounds have been saved to the officers since this system has been in operation.

Conclusion.—The results which have already been achieved by the successful working of this Institution, both as regards the qualification of the bandsmen and of the Bandmasters, have been most satisfactory in the improvement of military music. Not only has the efficiency been increased, but the general order and discipline of this branch of the public service have been much advanced.

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